THE WELL-BEING OF RELOCATED AND NONRELOCATED MALE UNITED METHODIST CLERGY AND THEIR SPOUSES

By

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Geographical relocation affects as many as 20% of Americans every year. Most of these residential changes are associated with upward career mobility. Due to job transfers, many employees relocate every 3 to 5 years. Because relocation is so prevalent, many counselors, educators, and employers question the effect on the well-being of such highly mobile individuals, especially married couples.

In this study the researcher compared the well-being of recently relocated, active, male Florida Annual Conference United Methodist clergy and clergy spouses (n = 124) with that of nonrelocated male United Methodist clergy and clergy spouses (n = 153). Guided by the double ABCX model of coping and adaptation, this study also investigated the relationship between stressors, relocation perceptions, coping resources, and well-being in clergy and clergy spouses. All subjects were administered The General Well-Being Scale, The Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index, The Life Experiences Survey, The Family Crisis Oriented Personal Evaluation Scale (F-COPES), and a demographic questionnaire.

The results of this study revealed no significant differences in well-being between relocators and nonrelocators. However, clergy spouses as a group exhibited significantly lower well-being than did clergy. Nevertheless, on the whole, well-being scores were above average when compared to the normative sample.

The results of this study further indicated that stressors, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources were predictive of well-being in male United Methodist clergy. These findings lend support to the double ABCX model of coping and adaptation. However, results suggested that only stressors were predictive of clergy spouse well-being among participants in this study.

It can be concluded from the results of this study that well-being in relocated and nonrelocated male United Methodist clergy and their spouses is above average despite their itinerant lifestyle.

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

> How lonely I feel having left my friends and community to go to a place where I know no one. . . . It seems like I just get established in one community and off I go. . . .
>
> --Anonymous

These lines from a veteran relocator capture the pain often associated with geographical mobility which is so prevalent in North America. It is estimated that 20% of Americans make a permanent residential change every year (Hazler & Nass, 1988) and that more than half of these moves are work-related (Employee Transfer Corporation, 1982). Because of the frequency of relocation and the fact that upward career mobility is often gained through job transfers, many employees expect to undergo a residential change every 3 to 5 years throughout their careers (Brett, 1980).

Relocation is a life transition which, by definition, involves change. Such change often escalates stress in workers and their families. As a result, many persons who are highly mobile report increased difficulty adjusting to each successive relocation experience (Anderson & Stark, 1985). Research results suggest notable physical and emotional indicators of distress associated with persons in occupations involving high job transfer rates. Gherman (1981) and Marshall and Cooper (1979) claimed symptoms such as depression, health problems, reduced community involvement, alcoholism, aggression, martial discord, high divorce rate, and a pervasive feeling of social anonymity compose a phenomenon known as the "mobility syndrome."

Although the popular press (Packard, 1972; Toffler, 1970) as well as empirically based research indicate largely negative psychological outcomes for frequent relocators, there remains much to be discovered regarding the extensiveness of the "mobility syndrome."

Moreover, the manifestation of this syndrome must be examined in populations particularly susceptible to it.

United Methodist clergy, by virtue of denominational polity, are subjected to nonvolitional relocation on the average of every 4 years. These clergy are appointed by bishops to serve as pastors of local churches and as ministers in other valid settings (United Methodist Church, 1988a). However, they must "go where they are sent," exerting little influence in the decision-making process.

In any given year, approximately 25% of the nearly 39,000 United Methodist clergy and their families relocate (United Methodist Church, 1989). Associated with such a relocation is the disruption of family routines, the severance of support networks, potential loss of spouse's employment and thus income, change in housing, new demands of work settings, and minor hassles related to establishing oneself in a new community. The demands of this itinerant system make United Methodist clergy particularly vulnerable to the "mobility syndrome." The impact of serial relocation on United Methodist clergy and their families may include the clergyperson's reduced effectiveness in ministerial duties (Sarason & Johnson, 1979), marital strain (Marshall & Cooper, 1979), social and academic upheaval for clergy children (Brett, 1982), and the propensity for clergy to seek different, more geographically stable careers (London & Allen, 1986).

Statement of the Problem

While psychological distress and family disruption have been well documented in the relocation literature (Ammons, Nelson, & Wodarski, 1982; Barrett & Noble, 1973; Brett, 1982; Gaylord & Symons, 1986; Gherman, 1981; Marshall & Cooper, 1979; Pedersen & Sullivan, 1964; Seidenberg, 1973; Watson, 1990), little research has been conducted to assess the degree of trauma resulting from relocation nor the factors associated with successful adaptation to relocation. Because the majority of relocation research has been conducted using business executives (Anderson & Stark, 1985; Ammons et al., 1982; Boss, McCubbin, & Lester, 1979; Carruthers & Pinder, 1983; Marshall & Cooper, 1979) and military populations (Marchant & Medway, 1987; McCubbin & Lavee, 1986; McKain,

1973), the effect of relocation on clergy, specifically United Methodist clergy, is unknown.

While it generally has been shown that employed spouses of relocated workers suffer added stress in response to relocation when they experience job loss (Brett & Reilly, 1988, Neims, 1986) and that relocation disrupts social networks and results in decreased life satisfaction among wives (Ammons et al., 1982; Neims, 1986; Seidenberg, 1973; Tiger, 1974), the adaptation to relocation of clergy spouses (mostly women) is unknown.

Most relocation research has focused on the impact of geographic mobility on family members' well-being, including physical health, work effectiveness and satisfaction, and marital, family, and social relationships. The results have been mixed with some studies suggesting little negative effect associated with relocation (Brett, 1982; Marchant & Medway, 1987; McKain, 1973; Pihl & Caron, 1980) and many citing severe strain as a consequence of relocation. The reasons that some people relocate with relative ease and others undergo intense trauma are unknown. Moreover, little research has been conducted comparing the well-being of relocators with that of similar, nonrelocating subjects. The results of one study (Pihl & Caron, 1980) indicated that geographic mobility was unrelated to psychological adjustment and that mobile individuals were not significantly different from nonmobile ones in terms of personality. In another study (Brett, 1982), results revealed that mobile employees were no less satisfied with their work than stable employees. Additionally, Brett concluded that mobile men and women "are more satisfied with their lives, families, and marriages than were stable men and women" (p. 450). However, it is not known whether these conclusions can be generalized to clergy populations nor whether there is any difference in well-being between relocating and nonrelocating clergy and their spouses.

According to McCubbin and Patterson (1983b) and others (Lavee, McCubbin, & Olson, 1987; Lavee, McCubbin & Patterson, 1985; Orr, Cameron & Day, 1991; Ostrander & Henry, 1990), family adaptation to stressful experiences involves a constellation of factors such as the recent stressors the family has faced, the family's coping resources, and the family's perceptions of the stressful event itself. The interaction among these variables is said

to be predictive of family adaptation based on a continuum from good adaptation to maladaptation. Although it has been shown that stressors, coping resources, and perceptions of stressful events are related to the degree of family adaptation to a given stressor (McCubbin, 1979; McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b), these studies have dealt mostly with special populations such as military (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985; McCubbin & Lavee, 1986), families with mentally retarded children (Orr, Cameron, & Day, 1991), single parents (Wedemeyer & Johnson, 1982), farm families in crisis (VanHook, 1987), and families with chronically ill children (Patterson, & McCubbin, 1983b). What remains unknown is the relationship between these variables and clergy and clergy spouse well-being following relocation.

Life transition research conducted by Schlossberg (1981, 1984) revealed that perceptions of transitions such as relocation were shaped by transition characteristics. That is, variables in the transition itself, variables in the individual, and variables in the environment play a role in adaptation to life transitions. Transition variables in the Schlossberg studies included positive or negative effect of the transition, amount of control, timing, and degree of transition-induced stress (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984). Individual variables included gender, age/life stage, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and previous experience with a similar transition (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984). Characteristics of the environment involved interpersonal and institutional support and quality of the physical setting (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984). Schlossberg (1981) concluded that the various transition characteristics have different salience depending on the type of transition and subgroup being studied. While the above-mentioned variables are known to be related to adaptation to life transitions in general, the relationship between these variables and clergy and clergy spouse adaptation to relocation is unknown.

Need for the Study

The results of a study by London, Ziegler, and Allen (1982) of a large sample of United Methodist clergy and their spouses revealed that, on the whole, United Methodist clergy and their spouses were satisfied with their career progress and family life circumstances. However, younger clergy and their spouses, those in the 23 to 35 age range,

appeared to be less tolerant of the sacrificial dimension of the itinerant system (London & Allen, 1986). Results of another study by Watson (1990) regarding United Methodist clergy and their spouses' perceptions of relocation stress supported the London et al. (1982) findings that younger clergy and their spouses experience more relocation stress than their older counterparts. In a pilot study conducted by this researcher (1990), results of a survey of recently relocated United Methodist clergy showed a majority perceived they had adapted well. Prior researchers have successfully measured United Methodist clergy and their spouse's perceptions of their adaptation to the demands of the itinerant system. However, there is a need for research in this area which attempts to measure well-being more objectively than has been done previously.

Because at least 99% of United Methodist candidates for ordination in the Florida Annual Conference of the United Methodist Church are required to undergo personal counseling prior to becoming ordained ministers (P. H. Roughton, personal communication, May, 1992), there is a need for specifically trained counselors to help prospective clergy and their spouses evaluate their willingness to commit to a lifestyle involving serial relocation. Similarly, counselors who undertake premarital counseling with couples who are, or intend to be, clergy may use the results of the study to help these couples anticipate relocation stresses and plan ways to maximize their adaptation potential. Those for whom the lifestyle was aversive could be counseled to seek other denominations or other settings for ministry.

Further, because clergy spend a significant portion of their time counseling parishioners, their own emotional health, or the lack of it, has the potential to influence the quality of the pastoral counseling they provide. If data were available regarding the well-being of recently relocated clergy and their more stable counterparts, it would be possible to assess the risk of clergy counselors inflicting unintentional harm on their parishoner clients. It would also be possible to design and implement treatment programs for clergy if the results of the study suggested it were warranted.

In addition, because clergy are often a strong referral source for counselors in private practice, if more information were available regarding clergy perceptions of counseling and clergy counseling issues, counselors could better serve this population. In

addition, if data were available concerning variables associated with clergy and spouse well-being, counselors could assist clergy to develop effective coping resources. They could offer specialized training in stress management for those clergy who experience distress associated with relocation.

If more facts were known about the variables associated with successful relocation adaptation, counselor training programs could use the results to prepare counselors to intervene effectively with clergy clients and their families. The knowledge gained from this study would also be useful in training counselors to work with other clients (e.g., business executives and military families) who regularly relocate. In addition, results of this research could be used to improve methods of measuring adaptation to stressors, with special attention given to relocation.

Further, if it were known which factors were associated with levels of well-being, church officials could enhance their decision-making process in appointing clergy to serve various churches and other ministries. In addition, based on data generated in this study, these officials could intentionally defer relocation until family circumstances approached a profile predictive of good adaptation. Use of results in this manner perhaps could reduce clergy family distress, improve effectiveness, and possibly increase the tenure of United Methodist clergy serving as local church pastors.

Purpose of the Study

Researchers have focused on United Methodist clergy's perceptions of relocation adaptation (London et al, 1983; Watson, 1990). This study attempted to more objectively measure relocation adaptation and to ascertain the variables associated with it. The primary purpose of this study was to measure well-being in relocating and nonrelocating United Methodist clergy and their spouses. The secondary purpose of this study was to determine the relationships between stressors, coping resources, perceptions of transition, and well-being in clergy and their spouses. Third, it was the purpose of the study to generate profiles of variables consistent with levels of adaptation to relocation. Such profiles will enable clergy and their spouses, church officials, church laity, and counselors who work with clergy to better address relocation issues.

Specifically, in this study the researcher addressed the following questions:

1. What is the difference in well-being between clergy who relocate in a given year and those who do not?

2. What is the difference in well-being between clergy spouses who relocate in a given year and those who do not?

3. What is the relationship between clergy and clergy spouses' stressors, coping resources, and perceptions of relocation and their well-being?

Rationale for the Approach

Family stress theorists (Burr, 1973; Hill, 1949; McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) suggest that adaptation to family crises is a process which depends upon a constellation of variables. These include, among others, the "pile up of demands" as described by McCubbin and Patterson (1983b), stressors, the family's coping resources, and the family's perceptions of the crisis event. Each of these variables influences the manner in which the family adapts to a particular stressor. Therefore, such an approach explains, in part, why some families emerge from stressful situations seemingly unscathed, while others suffer acute distress when undergoing a similar experience. A detailed explication of the theoretical constructs underlying the study appears in Chapter II.

In this study, currently active United Methodist ministers in the Florida Annual Conference and their spouses were asked to complete (a) a demographic questionnaire, (b) The Life Experiences Survey (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978) as a measure of stressors and "pile up of demands," (c) F-COPES, the Family Crisis-Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (McCubbin & Thompson, 1991) as a measure of family coping resources, (d) The Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index as a measure of perceptions of the relocation stressors and transition characteristics, and (e) The General Well-Being Scale (Lennon, 1982) as a measure of well-being. Data were analyzed to compare well-being of relocating and nonrelocating clergy and their spouses and to generate profiles of variables related to levels of adaptation to clergy relocation.

Definition of Terms

Adaptation is the outcome of the individual or family's processes in response to stressors and the pile-up of demands (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). It is a continuous variable ranging from maladaptation to good adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b).

An Annual Conference in the United Methodist Church is a governing body of a geographic region which functions under the administrative and pastoral leadership of a bishop.

In this study, the term good adaptation will be defined as proposed by Lavee, McCubbin, and Patterson (1985):

> The minimal discrepancy between the pile-up of demands and the family's capabilities, so as to achieve a balance in family functioning. It is characterized both by maintenance or strengthening of family integrity and by family member's sense of well being. (p 813)

Good adaptation also includes positive dimensions of physical and/or psychological health.

In the United Methodist Church, ordained clergy comprise two orders: elders, who are members in full connection of the Annual Conferences, and deacons, who are probationary members of the Annual Conferences. Bishops, the spiritual and administrative leaders of Annual Conferences, are elders elected to that office, but it is not a separate order of ministry. Clergy are required to commit to full-time service unless they are granted a special exception. As of 1991, the clergy in the United States numbered 38,359 active elders and deacons and 49 active bishops.

In 1956, the denomination opened ordination and full Annual Conference membership to women. As of 1991 there were 5,086 clergywomen in the denomination, including 4 bishops.

Deacons in the United Methodist Church usually become elders. In order to be ordained an elder, a deacon must have been a probationary member of the Annual Conference for 2 years and have served under episcopal appointment for 2 years after completing a Master of Divinity degree from an accredited theology school. In addition, candidates for elder must be recommended for ordination by the Board of Ordained Ministry

of the Annual Conference and approved by a majority vote of the clergy members in full connection in the Annual Conference (United Methodist Church, 1988a). In the Florida Annual Conference in 1991, the clergy (elders and deacons) numbered 1,101, of whom 55 were women (Echols, 1991).

A clergy couple is a husband and wife, both of whom are ministers in the United Methodist church.

A clergy spouse is a husband or wife of a clergyperson.

Coping refers to what Monat and Lazarus (1985) termed

> the efforts to master conditions of harm, threat, or challenge when a routine or automatic response is not readily available . . . environmental demands must be met with new behavioral solutions or old ones must be adapted to meet the current stress. (p. 5)

Coping resources are the individual's or family's strengths at the time the stressor occurs. Examples are financial security, health, intelligence, job skills, interpersonal skills, and social supports (Boss, 1987). Coping resources, therefore, are the physical, sociological, economic, psychological, and emotional assets on which persons can rely when confronted with stressors.

Family support is defined as expressions of affect, affirmation, and aid offered by members of the immediate family (Kahn & Antonucci, 1980). The term "affect" includes liking, love, respect, or admiration. "Affirmation" means acknowledgment of the rightness of some act or statement of another person. "Aid" signifies the exchange of things, money, information or time (Kahn & Antonucci, 1980).

Full-connection refers to the status of full membership in the Annual Conference. This position is conferred upon ordained elders who meet requirements of church law and who are approved by a majority of the clergy members already in full connection in the Annual Conference.

The itinerant system is the "accepted method of the United Methodist Church by which ordained ministers are appointed by the bishop to fields of labor" (United Methodist Church, 1988a, p. 242). Within this system, all ordained clergy are subject to relocation on an annual basis to serve as pastors of churches or in other ministries determined by the bishop

of the Annual Conference. According to church law, "all ordained ministers are expected to accept and abide by these appointments" (United Methodist Church, 1988a).

In this study, the definition of maladaptation proposed by Lavee, McCubbin, and Patterson (1985) will be used:

> The continued imbalance between the pile-up of demands and the family's capabilities for meeting those demands. It may be characterized by deterioration of family integrity, of family members' sense of well-being, and of their physical and/or psychological health. (p. 813)

Nonrelocating clergy are United Methodist clergy who have remained in one geographic location for 4 or more years without a change of residence.

Perception of relocation refers to the family's subjective evaluation of the relocation experience. The term includes the family's "meaning of the event" (Hansen & Hill, 1964; Hill, 1949) as well as its "construction of reality" (Reiss, 1981).

The "pile-up of demands" refers to "the cumulative effect, over time, of pre- and postcrisis stressors and strains" (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985, p. 812). Included in the concept are normative and nonnormative events (Patterson & McCubbin, 1983b) which confront persons while they are facing major stressor events.

Relocation refers to a "change of residence from one geographic location to another" (Ramey & Cloud, 1987, p. 151). Because relocation in this context is considered to be a specific transition and a psychosocial stressor, all of the characteristics of transitions and stressors, as well as all of the literature on human adaptation to transition, can be applied to relocation.

Social support is used to refer to the "mechanisms by which interpersonal relationships presumably protect people from the deleterious effects of stress" (Kessler, Price, & Wortman, 1985, p. 541).

Although there is no consensus in the stress literature regarding the definition of stress, the term's use in this study follows Caplan's (1964) definition as a disturbance in the steady state, that is, a system which is no longer in equilibrium but is disturbed, pressured, and strained. It is distinguished from stressor events in that it "is not seen as inherent in the event

itself but rather is conceptualized as a function of the response of the distressed family to the stressor" (McCubbin, Joy, Cauble, Comeau, Patterson, & Needle, 1980, p. 857).

A stressor is considered to be an event or experience which is "capable of causing change and stress but that does not necessarily do so every time" (Boss, 1987, p. 698). Therefore, a stressor is neutral in terms of attribution. It is neither positive nor negative but rather holds the potential to generate various levels of stress: optimal, deprived, or excessive, depending on the individual or family's response to it (Selye, 1980).

A transition is defined as "an event which results in a change in assumptions about oneself and the world and, thus, requires a corresponding change in behavior and relationships" (Schlossberg, 1984, p.5).

Transition characteristics are identified as the variables which influence adaptation to transition (Schlossberg, 1984). In this study, transition characteristics include commitment to the itinerant system of the United Methodist Church, family unit support, social support, response to the new environment, moving rate, financial status following relocation, and timeliness of the relocation. They comprise the majority of items on the Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index.

The United Methodist Church is a Protestant Christian denomination "in which the pure Word of God is preached and the Sacraments duly administered" (United Methodist Church, 1988a, p. 7). The church had its roots in the Church of England but was established in America at the Christmas Conference in Baltimore, Maryland, on December 24, 1784 (United Methodist Church, 1988a). The denomination is composed of 8,853,455 members in 72 Annual Conferences (United Methodist Church, 1992). As of 1968, it has included the merged traditions of the Evangelical United Brethren Church, the Central Jurisdiction of the Methodist Church (Black methodists), and the Methodist Church.

Well-being is defined as the absence of physical or psychological distress or depression (Lennon, 1982).

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The United Methodist system of appointing clergy to fields of service involves compulsory serial relocation. As a result, United Methodist clergy and their families relocate on an average of every 4 years (United Methodist Church, 1989). This phenomenon has raised concern regarding the stressful effects of relocation on clergy and clergy spouse well-being. This chapter contains a literature review highlighting theoretical constructs underlying the study, previous research conducted with the underlying theory, the effects of life events on well-being, unique clergy and clergy spouse stressors, the effect of relocation experiences on family members, and the relationships between transition characteristics and adaptation to relocation. Also included is literature addressing coping and stress adaptation, including typologies of resilient families.

Theoretical Constructs Underlying the Study

The literature in the stress field encompasses physiological, psychological, and social dimensions. Physiological stress deals with disturbances of tissue systems (Selye, 1956). Psychological stress is concerned with cognitive aspects of individuals' perceptions of threat (Lazarus, 1966). Social stress focuses on the disruption of a social system (Smelser, 1963). In addition to the multifarious nature of stress, the lack of agreement on its definition poses difficulties for current researchers. Lazarus (1966) suggested expanding the term to include all aspects of its current usage:

> It seems wise to use "stress" as a generic term for the whole area of problems that includes the stimuli producing stress reactions, the reactions themselves, and the various intervening processes. Thus, we can speak of the field of stress, and mean the physiological, sociological, and psychological phenomena and their respective concepts. (p. 27)

Therefore, the stress field includes "any event in which environmental demands, internal demands, or both tax or exceed the adaptive resources of an individual, social system, or

tissue system" (Monat & Lazarus, 1985, p. 3). Although the broad definitions of stress cited above are sufficient for a general understanding of the concept, the focus of this study is family stress, that is, an upset in the steady state of the family (Boss, 1987).

Reuben Hill's (1949) landmark study of stressed families separated by World War II furthered Koos' (1946) work on the "profile of trouble" and labeled it "the roller-coaster pattern of response to stress" (Hill, 1949, p. 14). According to Hill, a family's response to a crisis followed a predictable pattern beginning with a period of disorganization characterized by ineffective previous coping strategies for meeting current demands. Following the initial disorganization, Hill (1949) posited a period of recovery in which the family begins to reorganize and find adequate means of coping with the crisis. Finally, Hill (1949) claimed a new level of reorganization might be reached which either exceeds, equals, or falls below the previous level of family functioning.

In addition, Hill developed the following list of 10 factors used to test family functioning in relation to the concepts of family integration (cohesion) and adaptability (flexibility). These were

> (1) Previous success in meeting family crisis; (2) Non-materialistic goals predominate; (3) Flexibility and willingness to shift traditional roles of husband and wife or father and mother if necessary; (4) Acceptance of responsibility by all family members in performing family duties; (5) Willingness to sacrifice personal interest to attain family objectives; (6) Pride in the family tree and ancestral traditions; (7) Presence of strong patterns of emotional interdependence and unity; (8) High participation as a family in joint activities; (9) Presence of egalitarian patterns of family control and decision-making; and (10) Strong affectional ties between father-mother, father-children, mother-children, children-children. (Hill, 1949, pp. 17-18)

Hill referred to this list as "family resources" used to manage stress resulting from war-induced family separations and reunions.

One of Hill's (1949) vital and enduring contributions to the literature was the ABCX theoretical model of family stress. His theoretical framework included three variables: A, the stressor or trigger event; B, the family's resources possessed at the time of the event; and C, the individual and collective meanings or perceptions the family members construed regarding the event (Hill, 1949). Taken together, these three factors interact to contribute to the

avoidance or stimulation of a family crisis (the X factor). Hill's model has direct application for this dissertation.

The A Factor, or stressor, is defined as "an event that is capable of causing change and stress but that does not necessarily do so every time" (Boss, 1987, p. 698). It is a stimulus which is the potential impetus for the change process or the stress response. The stressor is neutral, so the outcome of a stressful event is not predetermined (Boss, 1987). Instead, it is dependent upon the family systems' resources and perceptions (the B and C factors) for its positive or negative impact (Burr, 1973; Hill, 1949). Included among stressor events are normal developmental events, such as childbirth and retirement; unexpected and disaster events; volitional stressors, such as marriage or a job promotion; and on-going stressors, such as chronic illnesses or handicaps (Boss, 1987).

The B Factor, or family coping resources, refers to the family's strengths which are available for meeting crisis-generated demands. Money, health, communication skills, problem-solving abilities, and support networks are examples of these resources (Boss, 1987). Along with these are (a) the family's agreement regarding its role structure, (b) subordination of ambitions to family goals, and (c) successfully meeting the family's physical and emotional needs (Hill, 1958). In short, the adequacy or inadequacy of the family organization is represented by the B Factor (Hill, 1958).

The C Factor, or meaning and perception of the event, refers to the family's "construction of reality" (Reiss, 1981). The family members' perception of the crisis situation, according to Hill (1949, 1958), is in part predictive of how they will react to the stressor.

In spite of the prominence of Hill's (1949) ABCX model of family stress, McCubbin and Patterson (1982, 1983b) further developed the model to reflect a more dynamic description of family coping and stress adaptation over time. The double ABCX model of family stress and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b)

> redefines precrisis variables and adds postcrisis variables in an effort to describe (a) the additional life stressors and strains, prior to or following the crisis-producing event, which result in a pile-up of demands; (b) the range of outcome of family processes in response to this pile-up of stressors (maladaptation to bonadaptation [good adaptation]); and (c) the intervening factors that shape the course of adaptation: family resources, coherence and

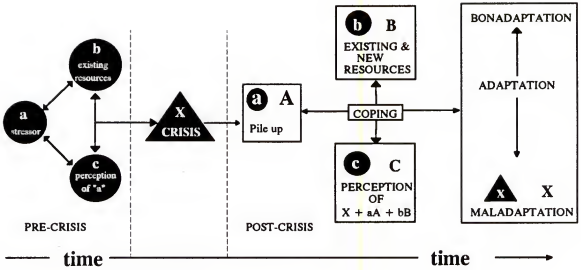

Figure 1. The double ABCX model
(McCubbin & Patterson, 1983a, p. 12)
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> meaning, and the related coping strategies. (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985, p. 812)

The pile-up of demands (the aA Factor) is the cumulative effect, over time, of precrisis and postcrisis stressors and strains (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). Besides the initial crisis event, additional stressors such as necessary role changes or previously unresolved family strains may also be present. These contribute to the sources of stress the family already faces while attempting to cope with a major stressor event (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985).

The family adaptive resources (the bB Factor) include the existing family strengths at the time of the crisis as well as the expanded resources developed in response to the stressor event. These resources are considered mediators between the pile-up of demands and adaptation. As a result, they minimize the demands placed on the family and/or they enable the family to make the necessary adaptive changes to meet the demands (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). Family adaptive resources are composed of (a) personal characteristics of family members such as knowledge or skills; (b) family system resources such as adaptability, cohesion, and communication (Olson & McCubbin, 1982; Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen, & Wilson, 1983); and (c) social support, i.e. the ability of persons and institutions to care for and value family members (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985).

Perception and coherence (the cC Factor) describes the family's general orientation toward overall circumstances (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). It "reflects a sense of acceptance and understanding of the situation, a framework within which definition of the situation is made and within which perceptions are judged" (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985, p. 813). Perception and Coherence is dynamic in that it is shaped by the family's internal and external experiences. It also influences the family's total interpretation of the particular situation (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985).

Family adaptation (the xX Factor) is "the outcome of the family's processes in response to the crisis and pile-up of demands" (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985, p. 813). It is a continuous variable ranging from maladaptation to good adaptation. According to LaVee, McCubbin, and Patterson (1985)

> maladaptation . . . is defined as continued imbalance between the pile-up of demands and the family's capabilities for meeting those demands. It may be characterized by deterioration of family integrity, or family members' sense of well-being, and of their physical and/or psychological health. Bonadaptation [good adaptation] . . . is defined as a minimal discrepancy between the pile-up of demands and the family's capabilities, so as to achieve a balance in the family functioning. It is characterized by both maintenance or strengthening of family integrity and by family members' sense of well-being. (p. 813)

The double ABCX model of family stress and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) posited that the interactions between the pile-up of demands (the aA Factor), family adaptive resources (the bB Factor), and perception and coherence (the cC) factor) result in a level of family adaptation ranging from maladaptation to good adaptation. This model of family stress and adaptation, which builds on the work of Hill (1949), forms the theoretical basis for this study.

Previous Research Using the Double ABCX Model

The double ABCX model (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) has been applied to many populations with varying results. Several researchers (Boss, McCubbin, & Lester, 1979; Davis & Boss, 1980; McCubbin, Boss, Wilson, & Lester, 1980;) studied absent father populations. These studies included (a) a nonwartime sample of U.S. Navy aviation pilots and their wives, in which the husbands were absent for approximately 8 months, (b) a nonmilitary sample of corporate executives' wives whose husbands were absent on the average of 1 week per month, and (c) a rural and urban sample of divorced women who experienced husband-father absence. In the above studies, researchers found two coping behavior patterns which were common to all samples: establishing independence and self-sufficiency by the remaining parent and maintaining family integrity (Boss, 1987). These findings supported earlier research of Angell (1936) and Hill (1949) which indicated that those families who coped best had both individual and family strengths from the outset (Boss, 1987).

In another study Patterson and McCubbin (1984) examined the relationship between gender roles and coping in the wives of U.S. Navy personnel assigned to an 8-month overseas deployment. Data indicated that "although an androgynous gender-role orientation was not directly associated with nondistress, it appeared to mitigate distress indirectly by influencing the coping patterns that wives use to manage the hardships of separation" (Patterson &

McCubbin, 1984, p. 95). Effective coping patterns included (a) acceptance of the lifestyle and optimism, (b) development of self-reliance and self-esteem, and (c) attention to family system and individual member needs (Patterson & McCubbin, 1984).

Lavee, McCubbin, and Olson (1987) applied the double ABCX model (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) in researching the effect of life events and transitions, intrafamily strain, marital adjustment, and appraisal on family well-being. Using a large (N=1,140), but nonrepresentative, sample of American families, they found life events and transitions had no direct effect on family well-being, but they increased intrafamily strain (Lavee, McCubbin, & Olson, 1987). However, family strain negatively affected marital adjustment and perceived well-being. These researchers also found that the pile-up of demands was counteracted by the positive relationship between marital adjustment, situation appraisal, and well-being (Lavee, McCubbin, & Olson, 1987). It was concluded, however, that marital adjustment was a mediating factor, whereas appraisal of the situation played a stress-buffering role (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1987).

Stewart (1989) also conducted a study of the double ABCX model in which aspects of the model were combined with other theoretical approaches to create a multisystem model. Using a sample of 440 individuals from occupational, medical, and community settings, Stewart (1989) studied the impact of stress and coping on adaptation. He found that individual, couple, and work stress each had a significant negative correlation with a mental health-physical symptom measure and a measure of overall satisfaction. However, family stress, measured by parental strains, was not significantly correlated with either adaptation measure (Stewart, 1989). Coping resources identified across systems contributed to adaptation independent of any source of stress (Stewart, 1989).

Crossman and Edmondson (1985) applied the ABCX model of family crisis adjustment (Hill, 1958) in their study of 44 women who became displaced homemakers. These researchers found that past employment did not insulate subjects against displacement. The study's results also revealed that family support was more frequently received by widowed rather than divorced subjects. Previous experience with a similar crisis did not mitigate the severity of the current crisis for these subjects (Crossman & Edmondson, 1985).

The only empirically based study which applied the double ABCX model (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) to relocation was conducted by Lavee, McCubbin, and Patterson (1985). These researchers employed a structural equation modeling approach (LISREL VI program) for testing the theory. Research was conducted using data on 1,227 Army families' adaptation to overseas relocation. The results supported the theoretical concept of pile-up of demands, in that previous family life events were found to influence significantly the postcrisis strain (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). Additionally, results revealed that family system resources and social support both facilitated adaptation. Family system resources were found to affect adaptation directly, whereas social support played a buffering role in reducing postcrisis strain (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985).

Orr, Cameron, and Day, 1991 evaluated the double ABCX model of family stress and adaptation using path analysis to determine the causal ordering of variables. Eighty-six families raising mentally retarded children were studied to determine the relationship between the stressor (A), the stress experiences (X), the families' use of resources (B), and their perception of the stressor (C). Results indicated the causal ordering of the model suggested an ACBX relation rather than an ABCX relation (Orr, Cameron, & Day, 1991). It is possible that these results were due to qualitative differences between these subjects and normal populations studied by other researchers.

Klein (1983) criticized Hill's (1949, 1958) ABCX model asserting that it was not causal. Klein (1983) argued that in order for there to be causality in the model there must be a method of measuring a crisis separate from the factors said to cause it. He contended that the ABCX model (Hill, 1949, 1958) is "simply a measurement tool" (p. 95), and the three necessary conditions are "functionally equivalent to a crisis and not causally antecedent to it" (Klein, 1983, p. 95).

Effects of Stressful Life Events on Well-Being

Research literature, as well as the popular press, has long heralded the link between stress and physical illness. Selye's (1956) pioneering efforts in the field resulted in his development of the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). The GAS is the physiological defensive reaction of the organism in response to noxious stimuli. Its pattern includes three

stages: an alarm reaction, a stage of resistance, and a stage of exhaustion (Selye, 1956). Selye (1956) posited that the sequence is predictable but is not always completed due to the removal of the stressor. However, if the stressor persists or is severe, according to Selye (1956), diseases of adaptation, such as stomach ulcers and infections, will occur.

Lazarus (1974) criticized the nonspecific aspects of Selye's (1956) association between physiological stressors and responses. Instead, he suggested the nature and severity of the stress disorder

> could depend on at least three factors: (1) the formal characteristics of the environmental demands, (2) the quality of the emotional response generated by the demands, or in particular individuals facing these demands, and (3) the process of coping mobilized by the stressful commerce. (Lazarus, 1974, p. 327)

Although many theoretical explanations regarding the relationship between stress and physical illness abound, most can be categorized in one of three ways. The link may be the result of the short- and long-term disruption of stress hormones on bodily functions, the consequence of unhealthy coping activities such as substance abuse, or the tendency to minimize bodily signs of illness because of social pressure to be "manly" (Monat & Lazarus, 1985).

Notwithstanding these theoretical differences, much empirical research has been conducted to verify the stress-physical illness relationship. Rahe and Arthur (1977) studied 3,000 U.S. Navy personnel who completed the Schedule of Recent Events (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) and a health status questionnaire. Results revealed that "life-change intensity rose significantly above a healthy baseline value before, during, and after illness occurrence" (Rahe & Arthur, 1977, p. 42). This study supported previous research (Graham & Stevenson, 1963; Greene & Miller, 1958; Rahe & Christ, 1966) documenting life stress build-up prior to the onset of a variety of illnesses. Another significant finding resulting from this study was that life changes resulting from illness experience were approximately equal in both timing and intensity to those life-changes having a causal effect on illness (Rahe & Arthur, 1977).

Roth, Wiebe, Fillingim, and Shay (1989) investigated the relationships between life events, fitness, hardiness, and health among 373 college students. Their results indicated that

stressful life experiences and recent physical illness were positively correlated. In addition, fitness and hardiness were negatively correlated with illness.

Further support for the relationship between stressful life events and physical illness was documented in a study of 95 professional employees (Nowack, 1991). The researcher first measured subjects' perceived stress, level of physical exercise, and coping style. One year later, the same subjects were administered self-report questionnaires regarding physical illness and job burnout. Results of a multiple regression analysis revealed that perceived stress, level of physical exercise, and an avoidant coping style significantly contributed to predictions of physical illness (Nowack, 1991). Furthermore, subjects who perceived less stress and expressed more cognitive hardiness reported significantly greater work/life satisfaction (Nowack, 1991).

In a study conducted by Kobasa, Maddi and Kahn (1982), researchers used an analysis of covariance procedure to demonstrate the direction of causality from stressful events to illness. These researchers found a significant interaction between stressful events and personality hardiness on illness measured both 1 and 2 years later, with original (Time 1) illness entered as a covariate. These results revealed that when stressful events accumulated and hardiness was low, an increase in subsequent illness was likely (Kobasa et al., 1982).

Maddi, Bartone, and Puccetti (1987) confirmed results obtained by Kobasa et al. (1982). Using two samples of employees from a utility company and two different sets of stress items, these researchers found that stressful event items uncontaminated by subjectivism, physical health, and neuroticism correlated with illness scores obtained both simultaneously and at a later time. Even when concurrent illness was partialed out, the results revealed a similar pattern of stressful life events significantly correlated with physical illness (Maddi et al., 1987).

Kessler, Turner, and House (1988) studied the effects of unemployment on the health of 146 currently unemployed adults. Their results showed significant elevations of depression, anxiety, somatization, and self-reported physical illness among the currently unemployed. These researchers also discovered that the adverse effects were largely reversed when subjects were reemployed (Kessler et al., 1988).

Although the above-cited empirical studies lend support for the stressful life events/physical illness relationship, the results of one study revealed that positively perceived life events could also produce negative health consequences (J. D. Brown & McGill, 1989). These researchers conducted two prospective studies in which positive life events and self-esteem were used to predict the development of illness in 107 undergraduate psychology students. Results of both studies indicated that desirable life changes were associated with increased illness among low self-esteem subjects. Among high self-esteem subjects, positive life events were connected to better health (J. D. Brown & McGill, 1989).

Besides substantiating the relationship between stressful life events and physical illness, research results have demonstrated that an accumulation of stressors is detrimental to one's mental health and contributes to psychological impairment (Barnett & Gotlib, 1988; Dohrenwend, 1973; Holahan & Moos, 1987; Leong & Vaux, 1991; Myers, Lindenthal, & Pepper, 1974; Ostrander, 1972). Paykel, Myers, Dienelt, Klerman, Lindenthal, and Pepper (1969), in a classic study of life events and depression among 185 depressed patients and matched controls, found the depressed subjects reported almost three times as many events as the controls. Eight individual events were found to occur with significantly more frequency among the depressed subjects than among normal controls. These events were (a) increase in arguments with spouse, (b) marital separation, (c) starting new type of work, (d) death of immediate family member, (e) serious illness of family member, (f) departure of family member from home, (g) serious personal physical illness, and (h) change in work conditions (Paykel et al., 1969).

Vinokur and Selzer (1975) used a modified version of the Schedule of Recent Events (SRE, Holmes, & Rahe, 1967) to study the relationship between desirable versus undesirable life events and mental distress in two samples totaling 1,059 male drivers. Results revealed that an accumulation of life events was correlated with self-reported tension and distress, depression, paranoid thinking, suicidal tendencies, and anxiety (Vinokur & Selzer, 1975). Moreover, these researchers discovered that these relationships did not hold for desirable life events but primarily for undesirable events (Vinokur & Selzer, 1975). The latter findings were also supported by Paulsen and Shaver's (1991) study of 69 midlife women. Their

research revealed that negative life events and contacts with nonsupportive persons influenced depression. Additionally, negative life events were strongly related to anxiety in these female subjects (Paulsen & Shaver, 1991).

In a study of 100 male and female college students, Sarason, Johnson, and Siegel (1978) found negative events to be significantly correlated with state and trait anxiety. In a related study, these researchers also found negative life events to be significantly related to social nonconformity and discomfort in 75 male and female undergraduate psychology students (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978).

In studies by Pearlin and Lieberman (1979) and Pearlin (1985), results revealed that nonscheduled job loss or loss of job status was most likely to result in anxiety and depression. They also discovered that those who had been fired or laid off were considerably more apt to experience psychological distress than those with stable occupations. These researchers also found that chronic marital strains, not the scheduled or nonscheduled events, had the greatest impact on psychological well-being (Pearlin, 1985; Pearlin & Lieberman, 1979). In addition, results indicated that daily problems of child care and training were considerably more distressful than transitional events such as children's entrance and departure from school or their final exit from the home (Pearlin, 1985; Pearlin & Lieberman, 1979).

The effects of life events upon the well-being of family systems investigated by several researchers has been described above (Lavee, McCubbin & Olson, 1987; Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985; McCubbin & Patterson, 1982, 1983b; Stewart, 1989). All of the above researchers found significant relationships between life events and family well-being. However, the results of research conducted by Lavee, McCubbin, and Olson (1987) suggested an indirect effect. These researchers found that "both stressful events and transitions influenced interpersonal tension and role strains in the family, which in turn affected perceived well-being" (p. 869). They concluded that family strains, more than the stressor events themselves, predicted a decrease in physical, psychological, and social well-being (Lavee, McCubbin, & Olson, 1987). These findings were consistent with previous research (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981; Patterson & McCubbin, 1983b).

Not only are life stresses and strains related to family well-being, but an individual's personal stress may be shared by his or her family members. Results of a study of 1,383 married women revealed that husbands' job stressors were associated with significantly elevated symptom levels in their wives (Rook, Dooley, & Catalano, 1991). These researchers discovered that wives' elevated distress was not linked to increased vulnerability to other stressors or to parenting and work demands in the wake of their spouses' job difficulties (Rook, Dooley, & Catalano, 1991). In this study, access to social support did not moderate the impact of husbands' job stressors, but marital tension did (Rook, Dooley, & Catalano, 1991). A surprising finding was that women in deteriorating marriages reported fewer symptoms in response to their husbands' stressors than did women in healthy marital relationships (Rook, Dooley, & Catalano, 1991). These findings suggested that stressful events jeopardize the mental health of both the individual who experiences them and his or her close associates (Rook, Dooley, & Catalano, 1991).

There is evidence of a connection between life events and physical, psychological, and family distress. However, the issue of causality has not been resolved adequately. Kessler, Price, and Wortman (1985) argued that prior emotional difficulties could trigger stressful life events such as job loss or divorce. Thus, ambiguous interpretations of causality in the relationships between life events and distress are possible. Moreover, Dohrenwend, Dodson, and Shrout (1984) asserted that a considerable percentage of the events listed in standard life event inventories had been judged by a sample of clinicians to be symptoms of emotional disorders. In spite of the inherent difficulty in specifying causality, there is strong empirical evidence for a positive relationship between stressful life events and physical, psychological, and family distress.

Unique Clergy Stresses

Not only do clergy face normative life stressors common to most families (Carter & McGoldrick, 1980), they are also vulnerable to added stress as a result of the interface between family and church systems (Lee & Balswick, 1989). Ostrander and Henry (1990) identified the following as specific ways in which clergy experience a pile-up of demands: (a) excessive congregational expectations, (b) lack of privacy, (c) scapegoating family problems

onto the church system, (d) scapegoating church problems onto the clergy family, (e) long hours resulting in the clergy parent's absence, (f) clergy commitments conflicting with family activities, (g) disruption of eating and sleeping habits as a result of emergencies and odd work hours, (h) relocation issues, (i) pressure to maintain a pastoral image, and (j) feelings of being victimized by the church system .

Mills and Koval (1971) in a study of nearly 5,000 ministers found that 75% had experienced at least one or more incidents of major stress, while 33% had considered leaving the ministry. In a study of 197 United Methodist clergy, Mickey and Wilson (1990) found that 31% indicated that they had experienced greater than expected pressures in their first appointments. Those reporting the most stress were families whose special needs could not always be accommodated by the itinerant system (Mickey & Wilson, 1990). Examples of these families included those whose members had serious health problems or handicapping conditions and dual careers. The primary stressors reported by this sample of United Methodist clergy were consistent with those listed by Ostrander and Henry (1990). These included (a) too little privacy, (b) lack of personal friends, (c) not enough time with family, and (d) the congregation's needs taking priority over other needs (Mickey & Wilson, 1990). Similar stressors were identified by Houts (1977) and Hight (1982).

Jud, Mills, and Burch (1970) studied clergy who left the ministry with the aim of determining factors associated with termination of clergy status. Jud et al. (1970) found that this decision was made as a result of feelings of personal and professional inadequacy, difficulty relocating when necessary, and family distress associated with the demands of the ministry.

In a study of 24 Lutheran pastors in the Queensland District of Australia, Gross (1989) used a multidimensional scaling analysis to determine characteristics of stress and burnout in this clergy population. Gross (1989) found that feelings of isolation and high self-expectations were associated with clergy stress. In general, these results supported the findings of Jud et al. (1970) with regard to self-esteem and self-expectations.

Hart (1984) identified depression and burnout as psychological hazards of ministry. Hart argued that such clergy distress was the consequence of loneliness, the demands of the

ministerial task, ambiguous work boundaries, self-neglect, and confusion of role identity with self-image (Hart, 1984). Hulme (1966) illuminated these difficulties claiming that "the parsonage family feels the pressure to be an example in their conduct because they belong to the man whose profession it is to be an example" (p. 78). Such pressure is what creates the "fishbowl" existence anecdotally ascribed to clergy families. Further, clergy are isolated from intimate relationships with others because of the potential "to jeopardize the minister's pastoral role" with parishioners (Hulme, 1966, p. 107).

Results of a study of 300 clergy conducted by Blackmon (1984) supported Hart's (1984) assumptions regarding factors contributing to clergy stress. Blackmon (1984) found finances, role conflict, sexuality, psychological problems, and personal relationships to be associated with the difficulties of ministry. Moreover, 20% of his sample indicated they viewed the ministry as more of a bane than a benefit in their lives (Blackmon, 1984).

McCandless (1984) studied the effects of stressful life events on illness and job-leaving behavior of 225 ministers. Significant relationships were found between all types of stress and illness and between work-related stress and job-leaving behavior. Additionally, McCandless (1984) found younger clergy reported more work-related stress from life events and from work-related events than did older clergy.

Notwithstanding the literature cited above which documents special clergy stressors, the results of a study of 250 religious professionals revealed evidence that, in fact, these subjects experienced significantly less work-related stress than did the normative population (Rayburn, Richmond, & Rogers, 1986). Moreover, these researchers found that in terms of personal strain, religious leaders had "fewer problems in work quality or output and had better attitudes toward their work. They showed better psychological adjustment and more positive outlook toward their jobs" (p.544) than did the normative population (Rayburn, Richmond, & Rogers, 1986). Additionally, this sample of religious professionals had fewer complaints regarding physical illness or poor health habits than did their normative counterparts (Rayburn, Richmond, & Rogers, 1986). The authors indicated one explanation for their results could be that "a noncomplaining attitude is circumscribed for religious

professionals" (Rayburn, Richmond, & Rogers, 1986, p. 545). A more recent study by Malony (1988) produced similar results.

These findings were supported by results of research conducted on a large (N=4,660) sample of Roman Catholic priests (Fichter, 1984). Results indicated that only a minority (6.2%) exhibited symptoms consistent with burnout (Fichter, 1984). Fichter's (1984) conclusions must be interpreted with caution, in that celibate Roman Catholic priests may be qualitatively different from married Protestant clergy. Clergy couples, that is, clergymen married to clergywomen, however, are more susceptible to stress than clergy married to nonclergy spouses (Rayburn, 1991). Clergy couples reported significantly more stress from role ambiguity, role insufficiency, role overload, and responsibility than did clergy and nonclergy couples (Rayburn, 1991).

Clergy Spouse Stressors

The results of the classic studies of ministers' wives conducted by Denton (1961) and Douglas (1961) identified various types of clergy wives. Based on the Denton (1961) study, wives were classified as aloof participants, supportive participants, and incorporated participants. Using responses from 4,000 ministers' wives from 38 denominations, Douglas (1961) suggested a typology of four types of wives: (a) fulfillment through natural growth, (b) fulfillment through hard struggle, (c) frustration through their demands and denials, and (d) frustrations through inadequacy and insecurity. These groupings suggested clergy wives did not fit a particular stereotype but rather defined their role in different ways. Nevertheless, Douglas (1961) indicated certain behavioral expectations were associated with ministers wives. They were to be "good wives" and share their husbands with the congregation. Clergy wives were expected to be parsonage hostesses and the emotional-integrative leaders of the family, congregation, and the wider community (Douglas, 1961). In short, the clergy wife was to subordinate her needs to those of everyone else (London, Ziegler, & Allen, 1982). Despite the traditional clergy wife role expectations at the time, Douglas' (1961) findings suggested that ministers' wives experienced significant difficulties including role conflict, inadequate finances, pressure and expectations from the congregation, and loneliness.

A study of 197 United Methodist clergy and their spouses generally supported Denton's findings regarding clergy wives (Mickey & Wilson, 1990). Thirty-seven percent of the spouses reported they saw themselves as partners in the ministry, and 50% indicated they were supportive of their clergy spouse's vocation (Mickey & Wilson, 1990).

Other studies suggest that the traditional clergy wife role espoused by Douglas (1961) has given way to women seeking to develop their own personal and professional identities (Niswander, 1982). Recently the most notable change in the clergy wives' situation is "the fact that their husbands' ministries are no longer the most important thing in their lives" (Niswander, 1982, p. 161).

Hartley (1978) studied marital satisfaction in 448 clergy wives across six denominations. She found that the highest percentage (22%) of satisfied clergy wives held a job outside the home and maintained a role and an identity beyond that of the "minister's wife" (Hartley, 1978). Only 8.7% of the homemakers were similarly satisfied. Moreover, in Hartley's (1978) study, wives who were schoolteachers were the most satisfied.

Mace and Mace (1980), in a classic study of clergy marriages, reported stress had a negative impact on clergy marital relationships. Ministers and their wives listed the following issues as problematic to their marriages: (a) marriage expected to be a model of perfection, (b) time pressure, (c) lack of family privacy; and (d) children expected to model church's expectations (Mace & Mace, 1980). Presnell (1977) studied 56 clergy and their spouses. They reported martial difficulties related to inadequate finances, time management, and personal and professional isolation (Presnell, 1977). Another study of 189 clergy and clergy spouses revealed that pastors and their wives experienced significantly more loneliness and diminished marital adjustment in comparison with males and females in nonpastoral roles (Warner, 1983). The marital difficulties of clergy and their spouses frequently lead to conflict and often divorce. Indeed, among professionals, ministers rank third in the number of divorces granted each year (Lavendar, 1976).

Nevertheless, self-reported indices of clergy marital satisfaction are high (Hartley, 1978). Those couples experiencing the most satisfaction were those in which the minister had positive parish relationships and a sense of personal fulfillment in ministry (Hoge, Dyble, &

Polk, 1981). Likewise, marital satisfaction also was found to be highest among those couples who spent the most time together (Edsall, 1986).

In sum, there is widespread empirical support for special stressors associated with the clergy/clergy-spouse population. However, the literature is mixed regarding whether clergy experience more stress than the general population.

Clergy spouses appear to suffer stresses similar to their ministerial mates. However, the focus of much of the pressure they experience relates to role definition. Recent literature suggests that many clergy wives are relinquishing the traditional helpmate role to develop personal and professional identities apart from their clergy spouses. These women have been found to be especially satisfied with their marital relationships.

Job Relocation as a Stressor

Job relocation has become an economic and social fact of life for many contemporary families. It is estimated that approximately 40 million Americans change their residences each year (Employee Transfer Corporation, 1982). Residential change is now so common in the United States that some workers expect to undergo a job transfer every 3 to 5 years (Brett, 1982).

Because of the sociological reality of relocation, Packard (1975) concluded that it was responsible for a variety of family problems including increased family isolation and ultimately the breakup of upwardly mobile families. Ammons, Nelson, and Wodarski (1982) claimed that relocation was a particularly stressful event for some families because it involved a simultaneous reduction in coping resources. They identified a sense of loss as the central theme associated with relocation. Losses included loss of social networks, friends and relatives, as well as loss of self-esteem and identity that often accompany a residential change (Ammons, Nelson, & Wodarski, 1982). Tiger (1974) pointed out that during relocation the employee's family members are "deprived of a fundamental human requirement of social continuity and personal stability" (p. 139) at a time when they most need it.

The results of lifestyle studies of people in high transfer occupations revealed a profile of stress symptoms called the "mobility syndrome" (Gherman, 1981; Marshall & Cooper, 1979). The symptoms included confusion, lethargy, depression, health

deterioration, reduction in community involvement, strong dependency on the marital relationship for emotional satisfaction, a significant rate of alcoholism, a pervasive feeling of social anonymity, destructive marital discord, and a high divorce rate (Anderson & Stark, 1988; Cooper, 1981; Gaylord & Symons, 1986; Gherman, 1981; Luo & Cooper, 1990; Sinetar, 1986).

In a study of relocated business executives, Ammons, Nelson, and Wodarski (1982) found several stressors associated with geographic mobility. These included (a) higher mortgages, (b) new recreational patterns, (c) fewer family get togethers, (d) an altered financial state, (e) opposition from parents, (f) pressure to succeed in the new job, (g) leaving close relationships, (h) loss of wife's employment, and (i) problems with the new house (Ammons et al., 1982).

Effect of Relocation on Family Members

Although relocation is considered to be a stressful event (Holmes & Rahe, 1967), the research regarding the effects of relocation on family members reveals mixed results. Fried (1963) studied Boston West End blue collar workers who were relocated as a result of urban development. He documented a syndrome of depression and gastrointestinal problems which persisted in these subjects for several months after relocation. Stokols and Shumaker (1982) also studied the health-related effects of geographical mobility. They found that individuals with a high mobility rate had a greater number of illness symptoms than did less mobile individuals.

On the other hand, other researchers found little evidence that geographical mobility results in decreased well-being and poor adaptation. Brett (1982) compared 500 employees of 10 U.S. corporations who were transferred with their stable counterparts. She found few differences between mobile and stable people in terms of well-being. She indicated that "mobile employees and their wives were more satisfied with their lives, families, and marriages than were stable employees and their wives" (p. 450).

In their study of newcomers to cities, Fischer and Phillips (1982) found that these subjects were more likely to be isolated than other more stable respondents. However, such

isolation persisted only during the first year after relocation. After 1 year the relocators were slightly less likely to be isolated than others (Fischer & Phillips, 1982).

Using a total of 916 managers in a large Canadian corporation, Pihl and Caron (1980) conducted two studies of the relationships among geographic mobility, psychological adjustment, and certain personality traits. Results indicated that geographic mobility was independent of psychological adjustment, and "none of the personality scales was associated differentially with adjustment in mobile populations" (Pihl & Caron, 1980, p. 190). Moreover, mobile subjects showed no differences from nonmobile subjects on any of the personality scales (Pihl & Caron, 1980).

Mann (1973) studied the effects of residential mobility on the adaptation of college students. He found that "high residentially mobile students reported less anxiety than low mobile student both in acute situations and on chronic measures" (Mann, 1973, p. 37). Analyses of gender differences among subjects' adaptation to relocation revealed no differences for females. However, high mobility males were found to be more intellectually oriented, autonomous, and independent than low mobility males (Mann, 1973). Although Mann's (1973) findings do not support the notion of a "mobility syndrome," they may not be generalizable to a noncollege student population.

In a study of 40 Army families on the Fort Jackson Army Base, Marchant and Medway (1987) failed to find any negative relationships associated with frequent relocation of military families. Such relocation "did not affect their general well-being or present identification with the military (p. 292)." Despite their positive results, Marchant and Medway (1987) acknowledged that military families are probably not comparable to nonmilitary populations. Collins and Coulter (1974) explained that military families do not suffer the same amount of life disruption as a result of relocation as do their civilian counterparts. This lack of disturbance may be related in part to the fact that most military transfers involve moving from one established base to another (Collins & Coulter, 1974).

The results of one study (Glueck, 1974) indicated that among corporate executives, the majority were neutral about relocation. In fact, 80% of the managers regarded the transfers as a useful experience for the company and themselves, while only 20% regarded

the experiences as unfavorable. Further analysis of the data in this study revealed that the higher the managers on the rungs of the corporate ladder, the more positively they evaluated transfers after three or more moves. Additionally, the more managers aspired to hold top managerial positions, the more favorably they evaluated the transfers (Glueck, 1974).

Effect on Spouses

The question of how spouses (mostly wives) respond to residential change has been addressed in several relocation studies. Seidenberg (1973) found that the wives of men who were transferred exhibited high levels of depression. Weissman and Paykel (1972) found similar results in a clinical sample of depressed women. The relationship between recent relocation and the pattern of depression occurred even when the moves were voluntary and associated with improved circumstances, such as better housing or increased financial gain (Weissman & Paykel, 1972).

In their study of relocated executives, Ammons et al. (1982) found significant differences between the feelings of husbands and wives after a recent residential change. The wives experienced the "negative" emotions of boredom, loss, depression, and loneliness to a significant degree more than men. Alternatively, husbands experienced enthusiasm significantly more than wives (Ammons et al., 1982).

In a study of 1,500 relocated households, Butler, McAllister, and Kaiser (1973) found that recent residential mobility experiences had little effect upon the extent of alienation, unhappiness, suspected mental disturbances, or poor physical health among their subjects. However, relocation was found to have adversely affected the mental health of females more than that of males.

Similar negative effects of relocation on women were found by Gaylord (1979) and Levin, Groves, and Lurie (1980). These researchers noted feelings of vulnerability, sadness, and alienation from the community in recently relocated women (Gaylord, 1979; Levin, Groves, & Lurie, 1980).

In his large (N=1,000) study of relocated executives, Glueck (1974) found that husbands stated their wives were only moderately upset by the changes associated with geographical mobility. However, the author acknowledged having received contrary accounts

from the wives themselves. Rarely were the wives' evaluations as positive as their husbands implied they were.

In a study of 231 wives of United Methodist ministers, results indicated these women had endured some negative experiences with the itinerant system of serial relocation. Twenty-two percent reported their careers had been adversely affected by moving. Nineteen percent found prospective employers resistant to hiring wives of itinerating ministers, and 15% found it increasingly difficult to obtain employment as they grew older (South Carolina United Methodist Ministers' Wives Club, 1987).

Similar results among wives of United Methodist clergy were found by Watson (1990). In her study, clergy spouses indicated they experienced significantly more stress related to relocation than was reported by their clergy husbands. These elevated stress levels centered around responsibility for the tasks of moving, saying goodbye to the former church, and making friends in the new community (Watson, 1990).

Jones (1973) studied the wives in 256 families who moved with Allied Van Lines during 1972. Although she reported that "typically they are happy with the new community and with the personality changes which have occurred as a result of their moving experiences" (p. 210), Table 2 (p. 215) in her article revealed that only 33% of the sample claimed they felt "excited or exhilarated" currently in the new community. On the other hand, 20% felt lonely or remote from other people, 13% felt depressed or quite unhappy, 20% had felt nervous or "on edge," 9% had trouble sleeping, and 85% could not get going or take care of things. Contrary to Jones' conclusions, the data seem to suggest that the wives had difficulty adjusting to the new environment.

Brett (1982) also studied the wives of transferred and stable male employees and their wives and found positive relationships between relocation and women's attitudes. She found that relocated wives were "more satisfied with their lives, families, and marriages than were stable employees and their wives" (p. 450). However, Brett did concede that her sample was not a good basis for generalizing to the experiences of full-time, career-committed women who enter the work force at the conclusion of their education and stay in the market.

The relationship between couples' adaptation to relocation has been researched by Wamboldt, Steinglass, and DeNour (1991). They studied forced evacuation of an Israeli settlement under the terms of the Camp David Accords. Although this population was somewhat unique, interesting results were found. According to Wamboldt et al. (1991), 16 of the 18 couples studied had synchronous adjustment, that is, they were either "well-functioning" or "poorer functioning couples (Wamboldt et al., 1991). The researchers concluded their findings were not simply a regression toward the mean, but rather that adjustment became more linked "because the coping skills of one member of the couple 'drove' the adjustment of both partners" (Wamboldt et al., 1991, p. 358).

Results of a study conducted by Equitable Relocation Management of 395 transferred employees revealed similar results. Those relocators with an enthusiastic spouse fared much better in the move than did those with unenthusiastic spouses (Snow, 1984).

Effect on Dual Career Families

Dual career families are those in which the husband and wife are both employed full time and are committed to occupational careers and to maintaining a family life together (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). Among these couples, relocation issues stand out as major stressors. Moreover, the literature consistently identifies dual-career couples as experiencing serious distress in relocating (Anderson & Stark, 1988; Gilbert, 1985; Gilleland, 1979; Neims, 1986; Sekaran, 1986; Watson, 1990). Spouses' difficulties in securing employment in a new location increase marital tension and may make dual-career couples reluctant to relocate (Holstrom, 1971; Maynard & Zawacki, 1979; Olive, Kelsey, Visser, & Daly, 1976).

In a nationwide study of 107 couples, Bird and Bird (1985) found that as the wife's income increased, she had more influence in relocation decisions. Relatedly, if the husband's job status was higher, he sustained more decision-making power (Bird & Bird, 1985).

In a study of 111 relocated employees in the United Kingdom, Munton (1990) found that 75% of the subjects rated relocation slightly stressful, and 40% found it to be highly stressful. Data suggested that those experiencing the most difficulties were subjects who moved a distance greater than 150 miles and those whose spouses had to secure employment in the new location. Similar results were found by Fox and Krausz (1987).

Starker (1990) also found dual-career families to have difficulty adjusting to relocation. She interviewed 69 newly relocated, middle- to upper middle-class individuals regarding their postrelocation social networks. Her results revealed that spousal support was a mediating factor for dual-career women's adaptation to relocation (Starker, 1990).

Carruthers and Pinder (1983) conducted a study regarding the ability of certain factors to predict relocation satisfaction in transferred employees and their spouses. Their results revealed that the employment status of the spouse had the most predictive impact on relocation satisfaction.

Transition Characteristics and Job Relocation

Schlossberg (1984) defined a transition as "any event that results in change in relationships, routines, assumptions, and/or roles within the settings of self, work, family, health, and/or economics" (p. 43). Because relocation involves a change in relationships, routines, and roles within the work and family and possibly economic setting, it can rightfully be considered to be a transition. Thus, persons who are geographically mobile might be expected to experience many of the stresses associated with other kinds of transitions. In addition, the ability to adapt to relocation would be contingent on the variables associated with adaptation to other transitions.

According to Schlossberg (1984), adaptation to transitions depends on variables in the individual and the environment and the interaction between these. Variables in the individual may include socioeconomic status, age, amount of control of the situation, and commitment to values, such as the way of life of the organization. Variables in the environment may include the physical surroundings and presence or absence of children in the home. Family support and social support, also listed as transition characteristics by Schlossberg (1984), will be addressed later in terms of coping resources.

Socioeconomic Status

Data on the relationship between socioeconomic status and the ability to adapt to relocation are inconsistent perhaps because of the different measures of socioeconomic status (income, occupation, education, or some combination of these), as well as the different studies which use various socioeconomic groups as subjects. One study (Lowenthal & Chiriboga,

1975) suggested that higher SES was related to increased stress and potentially poorer adaptation to transitions. However, results of actual studies of geographic mobility conducted with subjects of middle- to upper middle-class status (Brett, 1982; Marchant & Medway, 1987; Pihl & Caron, 1980;) revealed satisfactory adaptation among relocators. Additionally, results of studies regarding willingness to relocate suggested that transferees tend to have higher-than-average incomes (Blomquist, 1982). Moreover, positive correlations were found between salary and willingness to relocate (Gould & Penley, 1985) and between socioeconomic status of the occupation and frequency of transfers in that occupation (Sell, 1983). These results point to the importance of the family's experiencing increases in their incomes or standards of living in order to adjust well to relocation.

Age and Life Stage

Chiriboga (1975) found some general characteristics with regard to age and adult transitions. In studying negative and positive experiences among high school, newlyweds, middle-aged, and preretirement subjects, he found a higher number of negative transition experiences among the younger two groups than the older two. Among the older subjects there were no dramatic differences between the middle-aged and preretirement stages (Chiriboga, (1975).

Results of specific relocation studies, however, revealed evidence contrary to that of Chiriboga (1975). Younger subjects consistently indicated more willingness to relocate than older ones (Fox & Krausz, 1987; Gould & Penley, 1985; Marshall & Cooper, 1976). Additionally, employees who actually accepted job transfers were slightly younger than those who rejected them (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Sell, 1983). Relatedly, McAuley and Nutty (1982) found that young singles and young couples with children were more likely to move in response to preferred housing characteristics than were their older counterparts.

The results of a studyof United Methodist clergy relocation revealed that younger ministers and spouses reported more stress associated with moving than did their older colleagues Watson, 1990). These findings contradicted the results of other relocation studies cited above.

Voluntary vs. Involuntary Relocation

The amount of control that one perceives over relocation decisions would appear to be a factor in how well one adapts to a transition. Indeed, Johnson and Sarason (1978) found a significantly strong relationship between susceptibility to negative stress responses and perceived low control over life events. However, research results regarding the effect of the nature of the relocation decision (voluntary or involuntary) on adaptation are mixed. Stokols and Shumaker (1982) found greater health impairment reported among individuals who had little choice in moving to the current residence. However, among those sampled who had the highest mobility rate, residential choice was not associated with greater health impairment. Butler, McAllister and Kaiser (1973) studied the effects of voluntary and involuntary residential mobility and discovered that differences between voluntary and involuntary movers were quite small for alienation, unhappiness, and mental disturbance. However, voluntary movers were less likely than involuntary movers to rate their physical health as being poor.

Vandevelde's (1979) findings were contrary to those of Butler, McAllister, and Kaiser (1973). He found that a relationship between moving and depression existed even when the moves were voluntary.

Newman and Owen (1982) also studied involuntary movers, but these subjects were displaced from their homes as a result of urban development, not because of job transfer. Their findings indicated that the effects of displacement were not pervasive and were not always detrimental.

United Methodist clergy, by virtue of an itinerant system of church polity, are largely involuntary relocators. Although they may express their preferences and may volunteer to relocate during a given year, if they are instructed to relocate, they must comply.

Commitment to Relocating Lifestyle

Another aspect of adaptation to transitions has to do with values, specifically, the commitment of the individual to the way of life of an organization such as the military or the United Methodist Church. Pedersen and Sullivan (1964) studied well-adjusted and disturbed children of military families as well as parental attitudes. They found that families well-

identified with the larger military community showed fewer signs of stress and tension on relocation than those who showed low identification with the military. The researchers acknowledged, however, that their study dealt with subjects whose fathers were officers in the Washington, D.C., area. The subjects' military rank indicated some degree of professional success (Pedersen & Sullivan, 1964).

McKain (1973) interviewed 29 wife-mothers with regard to military relocation. He discovered that the greater the identification with Army life of the wife-mother, the fewer the number of move-associated family problems. Marchant and Medway (1987) also studied military families (service members, spouses, and children). They discovered that the more strongly the service member identified with the military way of life, the better was the self-reported well-being. Similar results were found by McCubbin (1979).

Physical Surroundings

The physical surroundings themselves also affect the way that people adapt to their circumstances. Stokols and Shumaker (1982) found that individuals who rated their current residence less favorably than the preceding one had greater illnesses and rated their overall health more negatively than those who rated their current residence more favorable than the last.

Carruthers and Pinder (1983) studied 406 managers randomly selected from six companies in order to determine the ability of urban characteristics to predict location satisfaction. These researchers found that prior familiarity with the new city had the strongest influence on location satisfaction.

Presence of Children

Most studies of adaptation to relocation involve families with children. There is considerable literature regarding the adjustment of children to moving (A. C. Brown & Orthner, 1990; Calabrese, 1989; Matter & Matter, 1988; Polari, 1988; Shaw, 1975, 1979; Smardo, 1981, 1987; Switzer, Hirschberg, Myers, Gray, Evers, & Forman, 1961). Nevertheless, few studies are available to date which distinguish between the ease of relocation adaptation for persons with and without children. The bulk of the research results indicate

that children whose mothers adapt well to the move also adapt well (Barrett & Noble, 1973; Jones, 1973; McKain, 1973; Medway & Marchant, 1987).

In a study of factors influencing willingness to relocate, Brett and Reilly (1988) found that having many children at home lowered employees' willingness to move. Similar results were found by Watson (1990) in her study of relocated United Methodist clergy and their spouses. Ministers and their spouses with children in the home reported higher levels of perceived stress associated with relocation than did clergy without children (Watson, 1990). The logical conclusion is that those persons without children experience fewer combined stresses and, therefore, have fewer hassles and easier adaptation than those with children.

Coping and Adaptation

The term "coping" refers to

> efforts to master conditions of harm, threat, or challenge when a routine or automatic response is not readily available. . . . Environmental demands must be met with new behavioral solutions or old ones must be adapted to meet the current stress. (Monat & Lazarus, 1985, p. 5)

In short, coping refers to "adaptation under relatively difficult conditions" (White, 1985, p. 19). Adaptation is the outcome of the individual or family's processes in response to stressors and the pile up of demands (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). Adaptation is not a static state but is characterized by various points on a continuum. Good adaptation is associated with a balance in family functioning including positive dimensions of physical and psychological health (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). It is associated with the absence of symptoms of anxiety, depression, and physical illness. Maladaptation, on the other hand, is represented by the presence of these symptoms in concert with an imbalance in family functioning and integrity (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). Particular coping styles and resources are assumed to be associated with varying degrees of stress adaptation.

Caplan (1964) identified seven general characteristics of effective coping behavior which are applicable to a variety of life transitions and crises. These characteristics included (a) active exploration of reality issues and search for information, (b) free expression of both positive and negative feelings and a tolerance of frustration, (c) active invoking of help from others, (d) breaking problems down into manageable bits and working through them one at a

time, (e) awareness of fatigue and tendencies toward disorganization with pacing of efforts and maintenance of control in as many areas of functioning as possible, (f) active mastery of feelings where possible and acceptance of inevitability where not, (g) flexibility and willingness to change, and (h) basic trust in oneself and others and basic optimism about outcome (Caplan, 1964). In general, these coping strategies recently have been subsumed under three categories: altering the problem directly through mastery, changing one's way of viewing the problem (Lazarus, 1966, 1974), and managing emotional distress created by the problem (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978).

Pearlin and Schooler (1978) studied 2,300 adults' coping responses to problems in the areas of work, economic life, marriage, and parenting. They found that coping efforts which were successful in one domain might not be effective in another. Further, those who used more varied coping repertoires were more insulated against distress than those who relied on a small number of similar coping strategies. In addition, these researchers discovered that there was little evidence for consistent application of coping approaches across domains. For example, those who used direct action in response to parenting difficulties might not do so in the marital arena. As a result of their work on coping, Pearlin and Schooler (1978) concluded that the most effective coping responses were most likely to be employed by men, by the educated, and by affluent members of society.

Family coping, which is the focus of this study, is defined as the family's management of a situation or stressful event (McCubbin, 1979). It includes the cognitive and affective processes by which individuals and their family system adjust to stress (Boss, 1987).

Angell (1936) and Cavan and Ranck (1938) are credited with initial family stress research undertaken at The University of Michigan and The University of Chicago as a result of the 1930s Depression (Boss, 1987). Based on an inductive method, Angell (1936) concluded there were two major determinants of a family's reaction to critical income loss: (a) <u>integration</u>, that is, the family's cohesion which included common interest, affection, and economic interdependence, and (b) <u>adaptability</u>, that is, the family's flexibility in communication and decision-making. These concepts have remained central themes in current family stress literature.

Cavan and Ranck (1938) conducted a longitudinal study of families before and during the Depression between the years 1927 and 1935. Their results supported those of Angell (1936). Cavan and Ranck (1938) found that a family's means of coping with present difficulty were directly related to their previous methods of coping. In functional, well-organized families, for example, when they sustained significant financial losses, they maintained their original organization and level of functioning. However, in families characterized by dysfunction and disorganization, these characteristics were augmented as a result of the Depression (Cavan & Ranck, 1938).

In a study of family abilities to manage crises precipitated by living in a New York City slum, Koos (1946) followed similar inductive methods and social psychology theory employed by Angell (1936) and Cavan and Ranck (1938). Koos (1946) found evidence of permanent demoralization, a dulling of the family's sensitivity, and an increased vulnerability to future crises. Koos' (1946) emphasis on family stress associated with urban living and the introduction of the term "profile of trouble" (p. 107) were important contributions to the family stress and coping literature.

More recent studies of family coping dealt with the issue of father/husband absence as a result of military deployment (McCubbin, Boss, Wilson, & Lester, 1980), corporate executive travel demands (Boss et. al., 1979), and divorce (Davis & Boss, 1980; McCabe, 1981). Results of these studies revealed certain coping strategies were consistent across all samples, regardless of the type of father/husband absence. The coping patterns used most frequently by subjects in these studies were (a) establishing independence and self-sufficiency by the remaining parent and (b) maintaining family integrity. These results were consistent with the early conclusions of Angell (1936) and Hill (1949), which indicated that family unit strength as well as individual strength were associated with families who adapted best to stress. In addition, adaptation to the father/husband absence stressor was dependent upon supportive relationships within the family and between family members and persons in the community (McCubbin, 1979).

These results, however, may not be generalizable to ministers' wives. Hsieh and Rugg (1983) found that evangelical ministers' wives did not establish independence and self-sufficiency.

> Activities identified by the Family Stress studies, but not selected by the ministers' wives included 1) going to school; 2) getting away by myself; 3) being active in the local community; 4) doing volunteer work; 5) concentration on hobbies; 6) going shopping with friends; 7) engaging in sports; 8) engaging in relationships and friendships which are satisfying to me; 9) seeking out friends who understand how difficult it is for me at times; and 10) involvement in social activities with friends. (Hsieh & Rugg, 1983, p. 79)

Only one activity ("talking with friends in my same situation") was chosen by over 50% of the ministers' wives in this sample. While "dependence on religion" ranked last among the subjects in the absent husband/father studies, ministers' wives relied on devotional activities as their primary coping strategies (Hsieh & Rugg, 1983). The authors suggested that these subjects' evangelical theological slant might be responsible for these wives' unique responses. However, these findings may not hold for less conservative clergy wives.

Although results of the Family Stress studies indicated that most subjects ranked "dependence upon religion" last among coping strategies, other researchers found religious activity highly correlated with well-being. Willets and Crider (1990) studied the well-being and life satisfaction of 1,650 men and women who, in 1947, completed a survey of adolescent religiosity. Results indicated that religious attitudes were positively related to overall well-being and community and marital satisfaction of both men and women. They also found that religious attitudes were positively associated with job satisfaction of men (Willits & Crider, 1990). Ellison, Gay, and Glass (1989) also found positive relationships between religiosity and life satisfaction. Results were mixed when religious and nonreligious coping strategies were compared in subjects ages 55 to 80 (Koenig, Siegler, & George, 1989). These researchers found no significant differences between religious and nonreligious copers in 12 measures of coping and adaptation. However, for older persons of lower social class and high stress levels, religious behaviors, when incorporated into one's world view, were associated with high levels of adaptation and coping (Koenig, Siegler, & George, 1989).

Gender differences emerged in coping styles in the Adaskin (1987) study. Husbands and male teens indicated they used more active, external methods while wives and female teens reported preference for more passive, solitary, internal methods of coping (Adaskin, 1987). Results of a study of minister's wives' coping patterns (Hsieh & Rugg, 1983) indicated similar results to those of Adaskin (1987). In their coping methods, minister's wives tended to refrain from tangible and concrete activities in their involvement with people, preferring activities they could do alone (Hsieh & Rugg, 1983).

Besides the above global coping mechanisms, one's interpretation of the stressor event shapes one's adaptation to it. Results of a study conducted by Nowack (1989) underscored the association between negative self-talk (Beck, 1979) as a coping strategy and psychological distress. Nowack studied 242 healthy, full-time professional employees between the ages of 22 and 64 years of age. He found intrusive negative thoughts significantly contributed to predictions of psychological distress in this population (Nowack, 1989). In addition, Nowack's (1989) results revealed that those subjects who "minimized the significance of aversive cognitions related to work and life stress reported less physical illness than those who tended to dwell on what was bothering them" (Nowack, 1989, p. 155). In general, these findings are consistent with the Perception and Meaning (Cc), factor of the double ABCX model of family stress and adaptation (McCubbin Patterson, 1983b).

Family Support

Kahn and Antonucci (1980) defined family support as "expressions of support, affect, affirmation, or aid" (pp. 267-268) provided by family members in times of stress. Empirical support for the relationship of this construct to adaptation was found in the results of Lowenthal and Chiriboga's (1975) San Francisco study of adult transitions. Their results revealed that close interpersonal relationships, or the lack of them, predicted whether highly stressed subjects were preoccupied with their stress. Indeed, Chiriboga (1975) found that those who managed their stress best had the highest familial and extrafamilial mutuality. In a study of transitions, B. B. Brown (1981) found that those least likely to suffer negative effects of stress were those who had a confiding marital relationship. This finding held regardless of whether subjects had a confiding relationship outside of marriage (Brown, 1981).

Levine (1976) studied the adaptation of 24 draft dodgers who fled the United States to Canada during the Vietnam War. He discovered that parental support was a major factor in positive adaptation to the new living situation.

Antonovsky and Sourani (1988) investigated the relationship between a family's sense of coherence, that is, "the extent to which one sees one's world as comprehensible, manageable, and meaningful" (p. 81), and family adaptation. They found a strong relationship between family coherence and adaptation to disability or illness in 60 Israeli couples (Antonovsky & Sourani, 1988).

Research results have demonstrated consistently that family unit support is strongly associated with successful relocation adjustment. These results were evident in various populations including business executives (Anderson & Stark, 1985, 1988; Jones, 1973; Ramey & Cloud, 1987), military personnel (Hazler & Nass, 1988; McCubbin & Lavee, 1986; McKain, 1973; Marchant & Medway, 1987; Pedersen & Sullivan, 1964), and clergy (London et al., 1982).

Social Support

The term "social support" refers to "the mechanisms by which interpersonal relationships presumably protect people from the deleterious effects of stress" (Kessler, Price, & Wortman, 1985, p. 541). Studies conducted during the Great Depression, world wars, and in the aftermath of disasters linked social networks to family adaptation to stress (Drabek & Boggs, 1968; Hill, 1949; Koos, 1946). Cobb (1976) reviewed research data and concluded that social support protected individuals from negative health consequences associated with stress. Results of a study conducted by G. W. Brown and Harris (1978) demonstrated that among a sample of urban women undergoing life stress, the experience of an intimate relationship with a husband or boyfriend appeared to protect these women from depression. Nearly 40% of the stressed women without a confidant developed depression, whereas only 4% of those with a significant relationship became depressed (G. W. Brown & Harris, 1978). Further, social networks have been credited with enabling people to cope with job loss (Gore, 1974), life and job stressors affecting marriage (Burke & Weir, 1977), and life transitions

(Hamburg & Adams, 1967; Hirsch, 1980; Schlossberg, 1981, 1984), including relocation (Neims, 1986; Ramey & McCloud, 1987; Starker, 1988).

In their study of relocated Army families, Lavee, McCubbin, and Patterson (1985) found that social support had an indirect, buffering effect on life stress. Essentially, involvement in the community, including the development of friendship networks, appeared to ease the perceived stressfulness of the relocation experience (Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985). Similar results were obtained by King, Dimond, and McCance (1987) who studied the response to relocation of 37 adults. Those with confidants were more likely to have positive adjustment outcomes than those without them (King, Dimond, & McCance, 1987).

Cook and Weigel (1983) asked 298 recently relocated individuals to identify the primary source from which they would seek assistance in response to eight hypothetical crisis situations. Results revealed that a majority of respondents identified social supports, including extended family, as mediators of stressful life situations (Cook & Weigel, 1983). The above-cited studies consistently point to the presence of social support as an effective means of coping with life stress.

Typologies of Resilient Families

The search for characteristics to describe families which are able to withstand and adapt to stressful events and transitions is a logical development of family stress studies. Based on prior research (Olson et al., 1983; Thompson et al., 1988), McCubbin & McCubbin (1988) described four types of family units: (a) vulnerable families, (b) secure families, (c) durable families, and (d) regenerative families. Vulnerable families reported they dealt with problems by becoming upset and showing disrespect for one another. They were depicted as blaming others, showing less caring, having less control of their circumstances, and indicating less of a sense of purpose and meaning in their lives. Moreover, vulnerable families were less likely to encourage other family members to take an active role in problem solving or to learn new things.

Secure families indicated they, too, coped with stress by becoming upset and showing disrespect for one another. However, these families were characterized by a basic hardiness

which included a sense of purpose and planfulness. They reported they felt in control of their lives and had a sense of meaningfulness in life. In addition, these families were active and encouraged their members to try new approaches to problem solving.

Durable families, like vulnerable families, reported a lower sense of purposefulness in life and felt less in control of their circumstances. Nevertheless, they were portrayed as having a positive view of their ability to cope with stressors. Although they had fewer basic internal strengths, they were able to compensate for these deficits by having a coping repertoire of caring, respect, and calmness.

Regenerative families were pictured as those with the greatest potential for adaptation to life's stressors. They reported they responded to family problems by developing mutual trust and caring as well as by maintaining an emotional calm. These families reported both an acceptance of difficulties and a commitment to problem solving. In addition, they reported security of purpose and found meaning in life. They saw themselves as in control, having the power to influence life circumstances. They were active in encouraging their members to address their difficulties and to try new things (McCubbin & McCubbin, 1988). On the whole, regenerative families indicated they placed greater value on family time, including rituals and celebrations, than did any of the other three types. They showed more bonding and flexibility and indicated more positive family adaptation in terms of family and marital satisfaction, physical and emotional health, and overall well-being (McCubbin & McCubbin, 1988).

These researchers also investigated family resilience among military families relocated to West Germany. The following factors were associated with positive adaptation to military relocation among Caucasian subjects:

> 1) the military member's sense of being able to predict what will happen to him and his family; 2) the military member's sense of fit in the lifestyle; 3) the spouse's commitment to this lifestyle; 4) friendship support in the community; 5) the family's support of the military member; 6) the military member's involvement in the community; 7) the spouse's sense of community support; 8) quality of neighborhood support; 9) the military member's coping skills; 10) family time together; and 11) family unity and cohesiveness. (McCubbin & McCubbin, 1988, p. 253)

In another study of stress-resistance in relocated families, Adaskin (1987) found that characteristics associated with fewer stress symptoms were hardiness of the parents, the amount of time since the move (symptoms being higher in the second year), and wife and teen anger anxiety and cognitive disorganization. Husband hardiness and healthy family functioning were associated positively with family health and relocation adaptation (Adaskin, 1987).

Summary

The double ABCX model of family stress and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) posited that the interaction of a pile-up of demands, the family's coping resources, and the family's Perception and Meaning of the stressor determine their adaptation to a given stressor. In general, this theory has been empirically supported by the results of a number of studies. Results of a path analysis (Orr, Cameron, & Day, 1991), however, suggested an ACBX model rather than the ABCX path. The model coincides and applies well to the intent of this study.

The pile-up of demands, measured in terms of negatively perceived life events, consistently has been shown to be related to physical illness, psychological distress, including anxiety and depression, and family distress. Issues of causality, however, remain debatable.

It has been demonstrated that clergy and their spouses experience unique stresses as a result of their roles. However, results are mixed regarding the degree of clergy and clergy spouse stress in relation to that of other populations.

Although relocation has been shown to be a psychosocial stressor, results are mixed in terms of its impact on family members. Variables such as higher socioeconomic status, positively perceived physical surroundings, commitment to the way of life of the organization, and absence of children in the home were consistently related to positive relocation adaptation. Empirical results were mixed regarding the relationship of amount of control exercised in the relocation decision and adaptation. The relationship between age and relocation was also unclear.

The results of coping strategy studies revealed several variables which were associated with positive adaptation to stressors. These were (a) family support, (b) social support, (c)

establishing independence, (d) maintaining family integrity, and (e) positive perceptions of the stressor event and one's ability to manage it. Results were mixed regarding the value of religion as a mitigator of stress. Gender differences emerged in some studies. Results of these investigations suggested that males tend to employ active, problem-solving strategies, while females use more passive approaches to dealing with their stress.

Researchers have investigated relocation among clergy and/or clergy spouses. The results of one study indicated that clergy spouses experienced more stress related to relocation than did their clergy mates (Watson, 1990).

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

Geographic mobility often has been associated with psychological, social, and physical symptoms of distress among persons who frequently relocate (Gherman, 1981; Marshall & Cooper 1979; Neims, 1986). However, much remains unknown regarding reasons why some serial relocators experience little disturbance and others undergo tremendous anguish as result of making a geographical residential change.

The primary purpose of this study was to measure well-being in relocating and nonrelocating United Methodist clergy and their spouses. The secondary purpose of this study was to determine the relationships between stressors, coping resources, perceptions of relocation, and well-being in clergy and their spouses. Third, it was the purpose of the study to generate profiles of variables consistent with levels of adaptation to relocation. Such profiles will enable clergy and their spouses, counselors who work with clergy, church officials, and church laity to better address relocation issues. In this chapter, the research methodology employed in the study is described. Topics addressed are the null hypotheses, research design, subjects, instruments, research procedures, and data analysis.

Null Hypotheses

1. There is no difference in well-being between relocators and nonrelocators.
2. There is no difference in well-being between clergy and spouses.
3. There is no interaction effect of relocator status and clergy/spouse designation.
4. There is no relationship between clergy relocator status and clergy well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources are controlled.
5. There is no relationship between clergy spouse relocator status and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources are controlled.

6. There is no relationship between clergy stressors and clergy well-being when the effects of locator status, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources are controlled.

7. There is no relationship between clergy spouse stressors and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of locator status, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources are controlled.

8. There is no relationship between clergy perceptions of relocation and clergy well-being when the effects of locator status, stressors, and coping resources are controlled.

9. There is no relationship between clergy spouse perceptions of relocation and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of locator status, stressors, and coping resources are controlled.

10. There is no relationship between clergy coping resources and clergy well-being when the effects of locator status, perceptions of relocation, and stressors are controlled.

11. There is no relationship between clergy spouse coping resources and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of locator status, perceptions of relocation and stressors are controlled.

Research Design

This investigation was a descriptive comparative study which utilized a a four-part survey and a demographic questionnaire to gather data regarding the null hypotheses. Two hundred twelve currently active and married United Methodist ministers in the Florida Annual Conference and their spouses were asked to complete (a) the Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index as a measure of perceptions of the relocation stressors based on transition characteristics, (b) the Life Experiences Survey (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978) as a measure of prior and/or on-going stressors and pile up of demands, (c) F-COPES, the Family Crisis-Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (McCubbin & Thompson, 1991) as a measure of family coping resources, (d) the General Well-Being Scale (Lennon, 1982) as a measure of well-being, and (e) a demographic questionnaire.

Using the scores on the General Well-Being Scale as the dependent variable, a repeated measures ANOVA was computed to compare levels of well-being in (a) relocators and nonrelocators (clergy and spouses together), (b) clergy relocators and clergy

nonrelocators, (c) clergy spouse relocators and clergy spouse nonrelocators, and (e) clergy and spouses. Two multiple regression analyses were used to determine factors predictive of well-being in clergy and clergy spouses.

Subjects

The population for this study included 212 active and married United Methodist clergy and their spouses in the Florida Annual Conference of the United Methodist Church. The Florida Annual Conference is a geographical area extending from the Appalachicola River on the west to the Atlantic Ocean on the east and south from the Georgia-Florida border to the tip of the Florida Keys. As of 1990, Florida Annual Conference church membership numbered 344,640 confirmed members in 913 congregations. Active clergy included 1,101, 55 of them women, 4 Asian, 30 Black, and 23 Hispanic (Echols, 1991). Of the 1,101 clergy, 1,036 were married and 65 were single. Approximately half of the subjects relocated in June 1992 and half had been in their same location for at least 4 years. Both deacons and elders were included.

Instruments

The Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index is a 10-item instrument designed to measure respondents' perceptions of their relocation experience and transition characteristics (Schlossberg, 1981, 1984) associated with it. Content areas include attitude toward relocation, receipt of family and social support, appraisal of the new environment compared to the previous one, family financial situation, work satisfaction, timeliness of the move, and commitment to the United Methodist itinerant system. Subjects are asked to respond to the items arranged on a 5-point Likert-type scale. High scores indicate positive perceptions, while low scores suggest negative perceptions. However, in this study, scores were reversed to maintain consistent direction with the other instruments in the battery and to ease analysis and interpretation. Internal consistency coefficient alpha equals .69. Content validity was supported in a previous validation study.

The Life Experiences Survey (LES) (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978) is a 47-item instrument designed to measure life changes and their perceived impact on respondents. Thirty-four of the items were based on the Schedule of Recent Experiences (SRE) (Holmes &

Rahe, 1967). Some of the events listed originally in the SRE were reworded to improve clarity. Others, such as references to Christmas or vacation, were considered inconsequential and, therefore, omitted (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978).

The format of the LES requires respondents to rate separately the desirability and impact of events they have experienced during the past year. Subjects are asked to rate these events as positive or negative. In addition, they are to indicate the perceived impact of the particular events on their life at the time of occurrence (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978). Ratings are on a 7-point scale ranging from extremely negative (-3) to extremely positive (+3). A positive change score is derived by adding the impact ratings of the positively designated events. Summing the negatively designated events results in obtaining a negative change score. A total change score can be gained by adding these two values. The change score indicates the total amount of desirable and undesirable change experienced by the respondent in the past year (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978). Normative studies conducted during instrument validation resulted in positive and negative life change scores which were essentially uncorrelated (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978).

Three test-retest reliability studies have been conducted by the authors. Correlations for the positive change score ranged from .19 to .61. Coefficients for the negative change score ranged from .56 to .88. The coefficients for the total change score were .63 to .81 (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978). The authors explained that the lower above-mentioned coefficients may have underestimated the test-retest reliabilities. These reliability coefficients may have resulted from positive and negative events experienced by respondents during the time interval between administrations of the instrument (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978). This problem would be expected in test-retest reliability studies of all instruments of this nature.

Beehr (1983) conducted a study of discriminate validity of the subscales of the Life Experiences Survey. Beehr found correlations of .47 and .65 ($p \leq .01$) between the recency subscale and the neutral events and negative events subscales, respectively. These results indicated overlap between the scales, suggesting that to some degree they may be measuring the same thing.

The only other validity studies conducted on the Life Experiences Survey have been diagnostic validity studies (Zuckerman, Oliver, Hollingsworth, & Austrin, 1986). However, the results of these studies have demonstrated a significant relationship between negative change scores and various constructs. Some of these constructs include anxiety, social desirability, academic achievement, personal maladjustment, depression, and locus of control.

In a study of anxiety, academic achievement, social desirability, and the Life Experiences Survey, negative change scores correlated significantly and in a positive direction with state and trait anxiety (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978). These results were consistent with other researchers' findings which revealed significant relationships between life stress and measures of anxiety (Constantini, Braun, Davis, & Iervolino, 1973) and academic achievement (Carranza, 1973). Relationships between life stress and GPA indicated that positive, negative, and total change scores were all found to be negatively correlated with GPA (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978).

Correlations between positive, negative, and total change scores and social desirability were -.05, .05, and .01, respectively, suggesting little relationship between the two measures. Beehr (1983) also conducted a study regarding the relationship between the LES and social desirability. Beehr's correlations were stronger than those of Sarason et al. (1978) but generally supported the Sarason et al. (1978) conclusion. Results of both studies indicated that the social desirability response bias was relatively marginal on the LES.

In a study of the relationship between life stress and personal maladjustment (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978), results revealed negative life change was significantly related to scores on the Social Nonconformity and Discomfort scales of the Psychological Screening Inventory (Lanyon, 1970). These findings suggest a relationship between negatively perceived change and psychological maladjustment.

In addition, a significant relationship was found between negative change scores and scores on the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, 1967) (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978). These results were similar to those of Vinokur and Selzer (1975) who found negative change to be related to self-reported depression. A study by Paykel, Myers, Dienelt, Klerman, Lindenthal, and Pepper (1969) lent support to these studies. These researchers found that

depressed subjects reported almost three times as many stressful life events as did the controls (Paykel et.al., 1969).

When scores from the LES were correlated with scores on the Internal-External (I-E) Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966), negative change was associated with externally oriented subjects (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978). In a similar study by Beehr (1983), neither Rotter's (1966) nor Lefcourt, VonBaeyer, Ware, and Cox's (1979) I-E scales was significantly related to any part of the Life Experiences Survey. These results lend support for the research use of this instrument in this study in that it appears to be relatively free from "ego-defensive reporting" (Beehr, 1983, p. 470).

Results from another study revealed higher negative change scores in counseling center clients than in other randomly selected subjects. These findings suggest the LES differentiates between subjects who experience psychological problems and those who do not (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978).

The Schedule of Recent Events (SRE) (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) and the Life Experiences Survey (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978) were compared in some of the above-mentioned studies in order to evaluate the strength of these two instruments with regard to dependent variables. No significant correlations were found between measures on either instrument and anxiety. However, significant correlations were found between positive, negative, and change scores on the LES and scores on the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, 1967) (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978). Moreover, the difference between the correlations obtained with the LES negative change score and the SRE score was significant (Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978).

As indicated above, LES negative change scores correlated significantly with measures of adjustment (Social Nonconformity and Discomfort scales on the Psychological Screening Inventory). However, no significant relationships were found between these two measures and the scores on the SRE (Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Sarason, Johnson, & Siegel, 1978).

A controversy exists currently in the literature regarding the most effective scoring methods for measures of life stress. The most common scoring methods are (a) frequency, (b) generalized weights, and (c) individualized weights (Zuckerman, Oliver, Hollingsworth, &

Austrin, 1986). A study comparing life events scoring methods as predictors of psychological symptomatology (Zuckerman et al., 1986) revealed every scoring method except one utilizing an individual's positive ratings of events was significantly correlated with symptomatology. Further, the method using an individual's negative ratings of events, such as that employed by the LES, was a significantly better predictor than any other (Zuckerman et al., 1986). These results support the superiority of the Life Experiences Survey over the Schedule of Recent Events in measuring life stress.

Sowa, Lustman, and Day (1986) used the instrument combined with other life events measures with a population of male and female public school teachers ages 21-59 years. The results of their study indicated the Life Experiences Survey was predictive of stress in this population. In addition, the researchers found the Life Experiences Survey to be generally free of gender bias (Sowa, Lustman, & Day, 1986). This population of public school teachers resembles the target population of United Methodist clergy in age and educational background. These similarities between the populations indicate it is an appropriate measure of life stress for use in this study. The widespread use of the instrument (99 studies between 1984-1991) (PsycLit, 1991) suggests general acceptance of the survey as a life stress measure.

The Family Crisis-Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (F-COPES) (McCubbin & Thompson, 1991) is a 30-item, 5-subscale inventory designed to measure effective problem-solving strategies used by families in responding to difficult situations. The inventory was created in order to bring together the meaning perceptions factors and family resources described in family stress theory (Burr, 1973; Hansen and Hill, 1964; McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) and mold them into coping strategies (McCubbin & Thompson, 1991).

Based on the double ABCX model of family stress (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b), F-COPES measures internal and external coping strategies used by families to manage stress. Originally three subscales were categorized under the heading Internal Coping Patterns. These were (a) Confidence in Family Problem Solving (4 items), (b) Reframing (4 items), (c) Family Passivity (4 items). Five subscales comprised the External Coping Patterns category. These were (a) Church/Religious Resources (4 items), (b) Extended Family (4 items), (c)

Friends (4 items), (d) Neighbors (3 items), and (e) Community Resources (3 items) (McCubbin, Larsen, & Olson, 1985).

The F-COPES is scored by adding the respondents' score (number circled) for each of the items. However, for four items (12, 17, 26, and 28) the scores are reversed (i.e., 5=1, 4=2, 3=3). Such a procedure results in all items being weighted in the same positive direction for both the analysis and interpretation of results (McCubbin & Thompson, 1991). Norms are available for adults and adolescents (male and female) for each subscale and the total scale (McCubbin & Thompson, 1991).

Initial reliability studies resulted in an internal reliability coefficient of .77 and a test-retest (4-5 weeks) reliability coefficient of .71 for the total scale (McCubbin & Thompson, 1991). Internal reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for the subscales were as follows: Confidence in Problem Solving, .70; Reframing, .64; Family Passivity, .66; Church/Religious Resources, .87; Extended Family, .86; Friends, .74; Neighbors, .79; and Community Resources, .70 (McCubbin & Thompson, 1991).

Construct validity studies were conducted using factor analysis on a large sample (N=2740) of husbands, wives, and adolescents. The sample was randomly split into two halves labeled Sample #1 and Sample #2 (McCubbin, Larsen, & Olson, 1985). Results indicated overlap in several of the original scales. As a result, the final form of the instrument was revised to represent five factors: (a) Acquiring Social Support, (b) Reframing, (c) Seeking Spiritual Support, (d) Mobilizing Family to Acquire and Accept Help, and (e) Passive Appraisal (McCubbin, Larsen, & Olson, 1985).

The General Well-Being Scale (Lennon, 1982) adapted by the researcher following Seymour (1986) is a 10-item instrument designed to measure respondents' general well-being during the immediate past month. Items cover content such as respondents' experiences of depression, anxiety, pressure, life satisfaction, energy, and physical health. Item responses are indicated on a five point Likert-type scale, with higher levels of well-being associated with higher scores.

Internal consistency reliability coefficients for the complete 18-item scale are reported to range from .87 to .95 with a Cronbach alpha of .90 (Lennon, 1982). The validity

of the General Well-Being scale was assessed by Fazio (1977) using an interviewer rating of depression as the criterion. According to Lennon (1992), Fazio considered the GWB scale to be a "better scale than other measures, including the MMPI, Psychiatric Status Schedule and the Zung Scale" (Lennon, 1982, p. 359). Lennon (1982) cited other studies (Edwards, Yarvis, Mueller, Zingale, & Wagman, 1974; Liveratos, 1977; Wan & Liveratos, 1977) attesting to the validity of the GWB scale.

Both the Clergy Demographic Questionnaire and the Clergy Spouse Demographic Questionnaire included questions concerning age, length of marriage, and whether or not the clergyperson was already in ministry or committed to ministry as a career when the marriage occurred. The number of children in the home at the time of relocation was also sought.

Clergy subjects were asked to indicate salary and travel allowance and to provide data concerning number of years of service as clergy, number of times relocated during years of service, and who (e.g. self, church, or Bishop) initiated the most recent relocation. Clergy spouses were asked to provide information regarding their employment, occupation, and salary.

Research Procedures

Permission to conduct the study was granted by Bishop H. Hasbrouck Hughes, Bishop of the Florida Annual Conference of the United Methodist Church . The researcher also secured approval from the University of Florida Institutional Review Board to conduct the study.

After the clergy appointments for 1992 were finalized, an accurate list for the current year of the married clergy relocators and their spouses was obtained from the Registrar's Office of the Florida Annual Conference of the United Methodist Church. Relocating subjects in the sample included all male, probationary and full connection clergy serving full-time local church appointments who relocated in June, 1992. Their spouses were also included. Due to the very small number of married, relocated clergywomen and the small number of ethnic minority clergymen, these subjects were not included in the sample. Nonrelocating subjects included all male, married, probationary and, full connection clergy serving full-time local church appointments who had been in their current locations 4 years

or more. Their spouses were also included. Due to the very small number of married, nonrelocated clergywomen and ethnic minority clergymen, these subjects were not included in the sample.

Research materials were mailed to the 212 selected clergy and their spouses. Included in the mailing were separate packets designated "clergy" and "clergy spouse." Each individual packet contained (a) a transmittal letter including informed consent (Appendix A), (b) a general instruction sheet (Appendix B), (c) a stamped self-addressed postcard, (Appendix C), the instruments and (d) a stamped, self-addressed envelope for return of the instruments. In order to match clergy with their spouses' returned questionnaires, codes were placed in the upper right hand corner of the first page of the instrument battery. A listing of the codes was kept by a secretary and was not available to the researcher, thus protecting the confidentiality of the respondents. The secretary accounted for returned questionnaires and generated and up-dated the follow-up list. The postcard revealed to the researcher that subjects had given their consent to participate and had completed and returned the instruments under separate cover.

Respondents were asked to return the completed instruments to the researcher immediately. In order to improve response rate, 10 days after the initial materials were mailed, reminder postcards (Appendix E) were sent to subjects who had not responded. Because a 50% response rate had not been obtained by the 3 weeks following the initial mailing, a follow-up letter (Appendix F) and a second set of research materials were sent to those who had not responded (Dillman, 1978). After the second follow-up was mailed, a final deadline of 3 weeks was set for all returns. Questionnaires arriving after the final deadline were not included in the data analysis.

Data Analysis

First, a demographic profile was generated to describe the resultant sample. A repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine differences in well-being between relocators and nonrelocators, between clergy and their spouses, and interactions within these groups (Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3). Then, two separate multiple regression equations (one for clergy and one for spouses) were used to determine the

relationships between clergy and clergy spouse well-being and the other variables under investigation (i.e., relocator status, stressors, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources). The multiple regression equations tested hypotheses 4 through 11.

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

This study focused on the well-being of recently relocated and nonrelocated United Methodist clergy and their spouses. A sample was drawn from married and active male United Methodist clergy in the Florida Annual Conference based on the criteria described in the previous chapter. Data were gathered using the Clergy and Clergy Spouse Relocation Questionnaire, a five section battery composed of the Perceptions of Relocation Index (Section I), The Life Experiences Survey (Section II), The Family Crisis-Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (F-COPES) (Section III), The General Well-Being Scale (Section IV), and a demographic questionnaire (Section V). Descriptive statistics were collected and the hypotheses tested. This chapter contains a presentation of the results of the data analyses.

Research Subjects

All of the white male United Methodist clergy (probationary members and elders) employed full time in the Florida Annual Conference who relocated in June 1992 and their spouses were selected to participate in the study. Because of the small number of clergywomen and ethnic minority clergy, these groups were not included. The relocators consisted of 102 clergy and their spouses. As a comparison group, all of the white male United Methodist clergy (probationary members and elders) employed full time and their spouses in the Florida Annual Conference who had remained in one location 4 years or longer comprised the nonrelocator group. Again, because of the small number of clergywomen and ethnic minority clergy, these groups were not included. The nonrelocators totaled 110 clergy and their spouses.

The Clergy and Clergy Spouse Relocation Questionnaire was sent to the 212 couples described above. A total of 277 questionnaires were returned resulting in an overall return rate of 65.3%. One hundred twenty four or 60.7% relocators' questionnaires were returned,

while 153 or 69.5% of the nonrelocators returned their questionnaires. A detailed description of return rates is found in Table 1.

An analysis of the demographic questionnaires (see Table 2 and Table 3) revealed that the mean age of the clergy relocators was 46.2 years and that of their spouses was 43.6 years.

Table 1

Comparison of Relocator (R) and Nonrelocator (NR) Questionnaire Return Rates (N=277)

Respondent Type	# sent	# returned	Cell %
Clergy (R)	102	63	61.76
Spouse (R)	102	61	59.80
Clergy (NR)	110	78	70.90
Spouse (NR)	110	75	68.18
Total (N+R)	424	277	65.33

Nonrelocator couples were slightly older than relocators (clergy, 48.2 years; spouses, 46 years). Relocator couples had been married an average of 20 years and nonrelocators had been married an average of 22 years. Most clergy (64.2%) in the total sample indicated they had been ordained or committed to the ministry at the time of their marriage. Thirty-five percent made the commitment after they married.

Clergy relocators earned an average of $31,909 per year, while nonrelocator clergy earned on the average $37,257 annually. Clergy relocators had moved on the average 5.4 times in 16.41 years, or once every 3 years. Their nonrelocator colleagues had moved on the average of 4.96 times in 21.13 years, or once every 4.26 years. Of the clergy relocators, 72.9% indicated they initiated their most recent move themselves, while 16.9% reported their moves were initiated by their local church. Only 10% of the clergy relocators indicated their moves had been initiated by the Bishop and/or his cabinet. The majority of clergy families (68.5%) had children under 18 living in their homes at the time of their most recent relocation.

Table 2

Demographics of Relocators (R) and Nonrelocators (NR) (Continuous Variables)

Question	n	Mean	S.D.
Age:			
Clergy (R)	60	46.20	9.30
No Response	3		
Spouse (R)	55	43.60	9.43
No Response	6		
Clergy (NR)	77	48.20	10.10
No Response	1		
Spouse (NR)	69	46.00	10.06
No Response	6		
Years Married:			
Clergy & Spouse (R)	115	20.40	11.34
No Response	9		
Clergy & Spouse (NR)	77	22.00	10.60
No Response	7		
Salary:			
Clergy (R)	60	31,909	10,294
No Response	3		
Spouse (R)	26	22,653	12,479
No Response	35		
Clergy (NR)	77	37,257	10, 838
No Response	1		
Spouse (NR)	44	19, 785	11, 169
No Response	31		
No. Moves:[a]			
Clergy (R)	59	5.40	3.04
No Response	4		
Clergy (NR)	77	4.96	2.77
No Response	1		

Table 2--continued.

Question	n	Mean	S.D.
Yrs. Service:[a]			
Clergy (R)	58	16.40	10.30
No Response	5		
Clergy (NR)	75	21.13	10.43
No Response	3		
Hrs/Week Worked:[b]			
Spouse (R)	26	32.50	14.40
No Response	37		
Spouse (NR)	47	35.70	11.80
No Response	28		

[a]Question answered only by clergy.
[b]Question answered only by spouses.

Table 3

Demographic Description of Total Sample (Categorical Variables)

Question	n	Cell %	Cum %
Clergy Ordained at Time Of Marriage:			
Yes	88	64.2	64.2
No	49	35.8	100.0
Children Under 18 At Last Move:			
Yes	85	68.5	68.5
No	39	31.5	100.0
Move Initiated By:[a,c]			
Clergy	43	72.9	72.9
Church	10	16.9	89.8
Bishop	6	10.2	100.0
Spouse Employed Outside Home:[b]			
Yes	72	58.1	58.1
No	52	41.9	100.0
Spouse Type Work:[b]			
Teacher	27	37.0	37.0
Nurse	8	11.0	47.9
Clerical	10	13.7	61.6
Financial	5	6.8	68.5
Church	3	4.1	72.6
Other	20	27.4	100.0

[a]Question answered only by clergy.
[b]Question answered only by spouses.
[c]Question not answered by nonrelocators.

More than half (58.1%) of the clergy spouses sampled reported they were employed outside the home. The majority (61.6%) worked in professions or jobs traditionally held by females: teaching, nursing, clerical, and financial. Relocated spouses indicated they worked an average of 32.5 hours per week, while their nonrelocator counterparts worked on the average 35.7 hours per week. Nonrelocator spouses had a slightly lower income than relocator spouses. The former reported an average annual income of $19,785, while the latter earned $22,653 on the average.

Results of Testing

Each participant completed the Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index, The Life Experiences Survey, The Family Crisis Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (F-COPES), and the General Well-Being Scale. Tables 4 through 8 contain the means and standard deviations for the four instruments by relocator status and clergy or spouse designation.

Results of Testing the Hypotheses

Eleven null hypotheses were tested in this study using the Statistical Analysis System, version 6.07, (SAS) (1989). To determine differences in well-being between relocators and nonrelocators, between clergy and their spouses, and the interactions between these two groups, a repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed based on the mean scores on the General Well-Being Scale found in Table 8. Two multiple regression equations (one for clergy and one for spouses) were used to determine the relationships between clergy and clergy spouse well-being and relocator status, stressors, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources.

Hypothesis 1

The first null hypothesis stated

There is no difference in well-being between relocators and nonrelocators.

Using the means on the General Well-Being Scale for clergy/spouse pairs, a repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed to determine the extent to which the variance in well-being could be attributed to relocator or nonrelocator status. Table 9 reveals that the F ratio (1.14 with 1, 125 df) was not significant ($p = .05$) for this analysis. Therefore, null hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for the Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index Scores by Relocators (R) and Nonrelocators (NR)

Group	n	Mean*	S.D.	Range
Clergy (R)	60	36.3	5.9	18-49
Spouse (R)	56	34.1	6.9	18-47
Clergy (NR)	76	38.3	6.3	23-49
Spouse (NR)	70	36.0	6.1	21-47

*Possible range scores for instrument: 10-50. Higher mean scores indicate positive perceptions of relocation.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for the Life Experiences Survey Scores By Relocators (R) and Nonrelocators (NR)

Group	n	Mean*	S.D.	Range
Clergy (R)	60	0.63	8.59	-25 to 16
Spouse (R)	56	-2.69	9.66	-25 to 21
Clergy (NR)	72	-0.66	5.71	-20 to 11
Spouse (NR)	66	-0.46	6.06	-18 to 14

* Higher mean scores indicate less stress than lower mean scores.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for the Total Scores on the Family Crisis Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (F-COPES) by Relocators (R) and Nonrelocators (NR)

Group	n	Mean*	S.D.	Range
Clergy (R)	60	102.6	11.8	71-125
Spouse (R)	60	95.3	30.7	10-135
Clergy (NR)	77	102.3	14.3	23-123
Spouse (NR)	77	93.5	29.0	10-127

*Higher mean scores indicate stronger, more diverse coping resources.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for the Subscales of the Family Crisis Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (F-COPES) By Relocators (R) and Nonrelocators (NR)

Subscale	n	Mean*	Range	S.D.
Acquire Social Support			(9 - 45)	
Clergy (R)	60	26.6		6.4
Spouse (R)	54	29.1		5.9
Clergy (NR)	75	26.6		5.3
Spouse (NR)	67	27.0		5.9
Reframing			(8 - 40)	
Clergy (R)	60	29.5		3.0
Spouse (R)	53	30.4		4.1
Clergy (NR)	74	29.5		3.6
Spouse (NR)	71	30.1		3.6
Seek Spiritual Support			(4 - 20)	
Clergy (R)	59	16.0		2.9
Spouse (R)	52	16.2		3.0
Clergy (NR)	76	16.0		2.4
Spouse (NR)	63	16.0		2.4

Table 7--continued.

Subscale	n	Mean*	Range	S.D.
Mobilizing Family to Acquire and Accept Help			(4 - 20)	
Clergy (R)	60	12.4		3.1
Spouse (R)	53	13.0		3.3
Clergy (NR)	75	12.4		2.8
Spouse (NR)	71	12.1		3.4
Passive Appraisal			(4 - 20)	
Clergy (R)	53	15.9		2.7
Spouse (R)	53	13.4		2.1
Clergy (NR)	70	16.2		2.3
Spouse (NR)	69	13.9		1.9

* Higher mean scores indicate strong use of coping style on Acquire Social Support, Reframing, Seeking Spiritual Support, Mobilizing Family to Acquire and Accept Help Subscales. On the Passive Appraisal subscale, lower mean scores indicate strong use of this coping style.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations for Clergy/Spouse Paris on the General Well-Being Scale Scores By Relocators (R) and Nonrelocators (NR)

Group	n	Mean*	S.D.
Clergy (R)	56	36.43	5.96
Spouse (R)	56	35.52	6.46
Clergy (NR)	71	36.07	5.71
Spouse (NR)	71	33.94	7.71

*Higher mean scores indicate higher well-being.

Table 9

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance for Between and Within Subjects Effects of Relocator/Nonrelocator Variable

Source	SS*	DF	MS	F	PR
Locator	58.44	1	58.40	1.14	0.288
Error	6414.90	125	51.32		

*Type III SS used for unequal cell sizes.

Hypothesis 2

The second null hypothesis stated

There is no difference in well-being between clergy and spouses.

A repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed to determine the extent to which the variance in well-being could be attributed to "clergy" or "spouse" designation. As can be seen in Table 10, a statistically significant ($F = 4.22$; $p = .042$) main effect F value resulted from this analysis. Therefore, null hypothesis 2 was rejected at the .05 alpha level.

Table 10

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance for Occasion by Locator Effect

Source	SS*	DF	MS	F	PR
Occasion**	144.4	1	144.40	4.22	0.042***
Occ * Loc	23.14	1	23.14	0.68	0.410
Error (Occasion)	4277.20	125	34.22		

*Type III SS used for unequal cell sizes.
**Occasion 1 = clergy; occasion 2 = spouses.
***$p \leq .05$.

Hypothesis 3

The third null hypothesis was

> There is no interaction effect between relocator status and clergy/spouse designation.

The F ratio for this interaction (.68) shown in Table 10 was not significant (p= .05); therefore, null hypothesis 3 was not rejected. There was no evidence to indicate the differential pattern of well-being between clergy and spouses detected in Hypothesis 2 varied over relocators and nonrelocators. Similarly, there was no evidence to indicate that the similar level of well-being between relocators and nonrelocators observed for all subjects in Hypothesis 1 was altered when looking at clergy or their spouses separately.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth null hypothesis stated

> There is no relationship between clergy relocator status and clergy well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources are controlled.

Because the results of the repeated measures ANOVA revealed significant differences between clergy and spouse well-being, two separate regression equations were computed (one for clergy and one for spouses) to test hypotheses 5 through 12. The dependent variables in these equations were clergy and clergy spouse well-being, respectively. The independent variables were relocator status, clergy and clergy spouse stressors, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources. The results of these analyses are given in Tables 11 and 12.

As revealed in Table 11, there was not a statistically significant F value for the relationship between relocator status and clergy well-being after controlling for other predictors in the model. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth null hypothesis stated

> There is no relationship between clergy spouse relocator status and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources are controlled.

This hypothesis was tested by computing a regression equation for clergy spouses. As can be seen in Table 12, there was not a statistically significant (p. = .0401) F value for the relationship between relocator status and well-being in clergy spouses after controlling for other predictors in the model. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 11

Multiple Regression Results for Clergy Well-Being Regressed on Relocator Status, Clergy Stressors, Clergy Perceptions of Relocation and Clergy Coping Resources

Source	SS*	DF	F	PR
Locator	21.21	1	0.77	0.3829
Clstress	222.68	1	8.05	0.0053**
Clperc	261.20	1	9.44	0.0026**
Clcope	144.59	1	5.23	0.0239**

*Type III SS used due to unequal cell sizes.
**alpha = .025.

Table 12

Multiple Regression Results for Spouse Well-Being Regressed on Relocator Status, Clergy Spouse Stressors,Clergy Spouse Perceptions of Relocation, and Clergy Spouse Coping Resources

Source	SS*	DF	F	PR
Locator	179.80	1	4.31	0.0401
Spstress	510.50	1	12.24	0.0007**
Spperc	109.37	1	2.62	0.1081
Spcope	19.45	1	0.47	0.4961

*Type III SS used due to unequal cell sizes.
**alpha = .025.

Hypothesis 6

The sixth null hypothesis stated

> There is no relationship between clergy stressors and clergy well-being when the effects of locator status, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources are controlled.

To determine the relationship between stressors and clergy well-being, a regression equation was computed. As illustrated in Table 11, there was a statistically significant ($F = 8.05$; $p = .0053$) F value for the clergy. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 7

The seventh null hypothesis stated

> There is no relationship between clergy spouse stressors and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of locator status, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources are controlled.

A multiple regression equation was computed to test this hypothesis. Table 12 shows that there was a statistically significant ($F = 12.24$, $p = .0007$) F value for the stressor variable in this equation. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 8

The eighth null hypothesis stated

> There is no relationship between clergy perceptions of relocation and clergy well-being when the effects of locator status, stressors, and coping resources are controlled.

To test this hypothesis, a multiple regression equation was computed. Table 11 presents the results of this analysis which indicated there was a statistically significant ($F = 9.44$; p. = .0026) F value for the clergy perceptions of relocation variable. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 9

The ninth null hypothesis stated

> There is no relationship between clergy spouse perceptions of relocation and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of locator status, stressors, and coping resources are controlled.

A multiple regression equation was computed to test this hypothesis. Results of the clergy spouse analysis (Table 12) revealed a statistically nonsignificant F value (F = 2.62) for the perceptions of relocation variable. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis 10

The 10th null hypothesis stated

> There is no relationship between clergy coping resources and clergy well-being when the effects of locator status, perceptions of relocation, and stressors are controlled.

A multiple regression equation was computed to test this hypothesis. Table 11 reveals there was a statistically significant (F = 5.23, p. = .0239) F value for the coping resources variable. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 11

The 11th null hypothesis stated

> There is no relationship between clergy spouse coping resources and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of locator status, perceptions of relocation and stressors are controlled.

A multiple regression equation was computed to test this hypothesis. Table 12 presents the results of this analysis which indicated a statistically nonsignificant F value resulted for the coping resources variable. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Additional Quantitative Analyses

In addition to the repeated measures ANOVA and the two multiple regression equations, three dependent sample t-tests were computed to test the differences in clergy and clergy spouse scores on the stressor, perceptions, and coping variables. Tables 13, 14, and 15 present the results of these analyses.

Table 13

Dependent Samples t-Test For Differences Between Clergy Stress and Clergy Spouse Stress

Variable	N	Mean	S.D.	t	PR
Stressor*	118	1.57	8.74	1.96	0.052

*Stressor = clergy stress score-clergy spouse stress score.

Table 14

Dependent Samples t-Test for Differences Between Clergy Perceptions and Clergy Spouse Perceptions

Variable	N	Mean	S.D.	t	PR
Perception*	126	2.24	5.27	4.78	.0001**

*Perception = clergy perceptions score-clergy spouse stress score.
**p ≤ .05.

Table 15

Dependent Samples t-Test For Differences Between Clergy Coping Resources and Clergy Spouse Coping Resources

Variable	N	Mean	S.D.	t	PR
Coping*	137	8.17	29.9	3.20	.0017**

*Coping = clergy coping resources score-clergy spouse coping resource score.
**p ≤ .05.

Results of the Qualitative Analyses

In addition to the five-part battery, two open-ended questions were asked of both clergy and clergy spouses. These were (a) "What else is important for me to know about your relocation experiences?" and (b) "What should counselors who work with relocating families know about your relocation experience?" Responses to each question were organized into themes and are found in Tables G-1 and G-2 in Appendix G.

CHAPTER V
LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY, DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Permanent residential changes are made every year by approximately 20% of Americans (Hazler & Nass, 1988). Because upward career mobility often requires geographical relocation, many employees expect to move every 3 to 5 years throughout their careers (Brett, 1980). United Methodist clergy are among those who regularly relocate. By virtue of denominational polity, they are subject to nonvolitional geographical moves on the average of every 4 years.

Some research results have suggested that geographic relocation resulted in psychological distress and diminished well-being in those persons who relocated (Ammons, Nelson, & Wodarski, 1982; Barrett & Noble, 1973; Brett, 1982; Gaylord & Symons, 1986; Gherman, 1981; Marshall & Cooper, 1979). However, results of other studies revealed little negative effect of relocation (Brett, 1982; Marchant & Medway, 1987; McKain, 1973; Pihl & Caron, 1980). In addition, McCubbin and Patterson's (1983b) double ABCX model of coping and adaptation indicated that perceptions of the event, stressors, and coping resources were predictive of the family's level of adaptation to crises.

The primary purpose of this study was to measure well-being in relocating and nonrelocating United Methodist clergy and their spouses. The secondary purpose of this study was to determine the relationships between stressors, coping resources, perceptions of relocation, and degree of well-being in clergy and their spouses. Third, it was the purpose of the study to generate profiles of variables consistent with levels of adaptation to relocation. This chapter includes the limitations of the study, an evaluation of the hypotheses, discussion of the results, implications and recommendations for further study, and conclusions.

Limitations of the Study

The major limitation associated with this research involves the liabilities associated with the use of self-report instruments. These weaknesses consist of response sets such as social desirability (Anastasi, 1988). However, there is a growing body of literature which suggests that under certain conditions self-report instruments are as reliable and valid as other measurement approaches (Dana, 1984; Osberg & Shrauger, 1986; Shrauger & Osberg, 1981).

One limitation of the Life Experiences Survey is that normative studies were originally conducted using a college student population. The results of these studies may or may not be generalizable to the general population or to a population of United Methodist clergy. However, a majority of the articles cited in the PsyLit database (American Psychological Association, 1991) reported empirical studies in which the Life Experiences Survey was utilized successfully with general population subjects.

The results of this study are further limited in regard to generalizability. Because this study was conducted using a specialized population of clergy, results might not generalize to other populations of relocators. Moreover, this study did not include clergywomen and male spouses nor ethnic minority clergy and their spouses. Therefore, the results may not generalize to those populations. In addition, because United Methodist clergy are subject to an itinerant system, the extent to which these results might be generalized to clergy of other denominations is unknown.

Finally, well-being as it was defined and measured in this study may, in itself, be a limitation. According to Lennon (1982), well-being is marked by the absence of physical or psychological distress or depression. Although the General Well-Being Scale measured some aspects of these factors, other measures composed of different items could have generated divergent results.

Evaluation and Discussion of the Results

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that no significant difference would be found in well-being between relocators and nonrelocators as measured by the General Well-Being Scale. The

results of the data analysis supported this statement, and, therefore, null hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

Both relocators and nonrelocators received scores on the General Well-Being Scale which were above average. This suggests that clergy and clergy spouses as a group are functioning well despite being participants in a system which requires frequent serial relocation. These results contradict those found by Gherman (1981) and Marshall and Cooper (1979) which indicated that persons with high job transfer rates often experienced symptoms such as depression, health problems, high divorce rate, and social anonymity. In fact, in this population of United Methodist clergy and clergy spouses, there was little evidence of depression or health problems. Moreover, couples in this sample had been married an average of at least 20 years. Comments solicited from respondents regarding their relocation experiences revealed they had a keen interest in becoming involved in community activities. This fact is contrary to the notion that frequent relocators experience a pervasive feeling of social anonymity. Indeed, the prescribed clergy and clergy spouse roles demand a high level of community involvement.

Results of this study were consistent with the findings of Brett (1980) who concluded that mobile men and women "are more satisfied with their lives, families, and marriages than were stable men and women" (p. 450). Most of the research results which suggested little negative effect associated with relocation were conducted with military subjects (Collins & Coulter, 1974; Marchant & Medway, 1987; McKain, 1973). These researchers acknowledged that military populations may not be comparable to civilian ones. The results of this study may have parallelled those of military studies due to some similarities between clergy families and those in the armed forces. For example, both military and clergy families commit to and accept a lifestyle which they know involves frequent relocation. Both populations receive "orders" from superiors to relocate with little opportunity to influence the relocation decisions. Both populations belong to organizations which have connectional structures. That is, they have a shared identity and mission, enjoy a unique collegiality and are bound together by their common experiences. In spite of regular relocation, military families are assigned to bases where they work with other military personnel. United Methodist clergy,

though they are assigned to new churches and communities, maintain frequent contact with clergy colleagues as a result of denominational meetings and other church-wide events. Military and clergy populations are similar in that both have established channels of support to ease relocation stress. Military personnel can avail themselves of services aimed specifically at facilitating their adjustment to relocation. Similarly, United Methodist clergy families are welcomed by church communities who often assist with unpacking, providing food, and other supports during the initial transition. Thus, clergy families may be insulated from some distress associated with relocation, thereby enabling them to maintain above-average well-being in their lives.

Despite the consistency of this study's results with other findings comparing well-being in relocators and nonrelocators, there were some discrepancies between self-reported well-being and the responses to the open-ended questions regarding relocation experiences. While well-being scores for the four types of respondents were above average, in answering the open-ended questions, subjects in all four groups generally made negative statements regarding relocation (see Tables G-1 and G-2). This incongruity may suggest that the General Well-Being Scale was not sensitive to existing differences in well-being which would have emerged had the construct been measured by another instrument. In addition, subjects' responses may have been influenced by a response set of social desirability. That is, respondents may have answered the questions so as to present themselves in a favorable light, thus masking a lower level of well-being. Relatedly, clergy and clergy spouse well-being scores could have been a function of the respondents' perceptions of personal well-being. That is, subjects may have actually been experiencing more symptoms of anxiety, depression, and distress than they recognized or were able or willing to acknowledge.

Another plausible explanation for these results is related to a possible selection factor operating in this population. Because clergy subjects in the resultant sample had served a combined average of 18 years in the ministry, their long tenure may indicate they are well-suited to an itinerant lifestyle. Similarly, it may be that those who could not tolerate the demands of multiple relocations left the pastoral ministry for more stable occupations. Furthermore, it could be that the 34.7% of clergy and clergy spouses in the target population

who chose not to participate in the study would have received lower well-being scores had they completed the instrument. A note attached to a spouse's uncompleted questionnaire supported this notion. It read, "My wife chooses not to participate. She does not wish to relive the pain of our recent relocation and its circumstances."

Hypothesis 2

The second null hypothesis stated that no significant difference would be found in well-being between clergy and clergy spouses. A significant difference ($p = .042$) in well-being scores between clergy and clergy spouses was found; thus, null hypothesis 4 was rejected.

The data analysis revealed that clergy spouses reported lower well-being than did clergy subjects. This finding is consistent with nearly all previous research results which focused on relocating spouses (Ammons, Nelson, & Wodarski, 1982; Gaylord, 1979; Glueck, 1974; Levin, Groves, & Lurie, 1980; Neims, 1986; Seidenberg, 1973; Watson, 1990; Weissman & Paykel, 1972;). In these studies, lower well-being was manifest in depression, sadness, loneliness, and alienation from the community. Indeed, in the present study clergy spouses mentioned grief and loneliness as consequences of relocation nearly three times as often as did their clergy mates.

It is possible that clergy spouses scored lower on well-being than clergy because they, unlike their partners, may not have felt "called" to the ministry and its demands. Rather than experiencing their circumstances as opportunities for service, they may have felt caught in a system which shapes their lives and over which they have no control. If clergy spouses viewed their situations negatively, they may have lacked appropriate channels through which to discharge their anger and disappointment. For example, in similar circumstances business executives' spouses could have lashed out at the company in the wake of an unsatisfying relocation. However, clergy spouses in this study may have felt guilty for directing similar anger toward God.

Lower well-being scores among clergy spouses in this study also may be explained by the fact that clergy have a built-in support system through the church's denominational structures. When they relocate, they maintain their contacts with clergy colleagues and simply

continue to perform similar tasks in a new location. Spouses, on the other hand, must make new friends as they relocate to different areas. This severance of emotional support may be responsible for the lower well-being scores among spouses found in this study. Furthermore, clergy may focus on work responsibilities and leave to their spouses the tasks of unpacking and reestablishing the family. Narrative responses by clergy spouses supported this conjecture. One clergy spouse wrote,

> Relocation tends to be more difficult for the clergy family members because the clergyperson dives into his work and copes with feelings of loss through busyness. Clergy families may not.

Another spouse echoed this theme:

> Workaholic clergy tend to neglect spouse and family during the first year when they need support.

The impact of relocation on clergy spouse careers has been shown to contribute to lower well-being (Snow, 1984). In this study 45% of the clergy spouses noted employment needs as a major determinant of their relocation adjustment. Spouses who, with their clergy husbands, constituted dual-career couples were especially strained. This finding is consistent with other literature regarding dual-career couples' difficulty with relocation (Gilleland, 1979; Gilbert, 1985; Mickey & Wilson, 1990; Neims, 1986; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971; Watson, 1990). One spouse reported she and her husband had maintained separate residences in different communities in order for her to continue in her current career. She indicated this decision had negatively affected her marriage and family life.

Hypothesis 3

The third null hypothesis stated that no interaction effect of relocator status and clergy/spouse designation would be found. The data analysis supported this statement and null hypothesis 3 also was not rejected. Because results of testing null hypothesis 1 revealed no significant difference between relocators and nonrelocators, it is not surprising that similar results were found when well-being scores for clergy relocators and clergy nonrelocators were compared. In addition to the explanations of this phenomenon described above, it is possible that a false dichotomy was drawn between clergy relocators and nonrelocators. Perhaps even those subjects who had remained in one location 4 years or longer nevertheless perceived

themselves to be relocators. This conclusion is supported by the fact that all United Methodist pastoral assignments are reviewed every year and clergy are subject to relocation at any time. Nonsignificant differences in well-being between clergy spouse relocators and nonrelocators are plausible because a majority of both relocator and nonrelocator clergy spouses knew at the time of their marriage that their husbands were committed to an itinerant lifestyle. Presumably, those women who could not accept such mobility chose other marriage partners, or the clergy husband located a more stable form of ministry.

In addition, almost 42% of clergy spouses in this study were not employed outside the home. This fact alone may have contributed to the above-average well-being scores in both relocator and nonrelocator spouses. Further, the majority (68.5%) of all clergy spouses who were employed outside the home had professions or jobs traditionally held by females: teachers, nurses, clerical, and financial. Historically, women employed in these fields have located new employment with relative ease, thus reducing relocation related stress and increasing well-being.

By virtue of being married to United Methodist clergy, clergy spouses are subject to an itinerant system of relocation. They, like their clergy husbands, may identify more with being relocators than nonrelocators. Such perceptions may explain the lack of significant differences found in well-being between relocator and nonrelocator clergy spouses participating in this study.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth null hypothesis stated that no significant relationship would be found between clergy relocator status and clergy well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources were controlled. The analysis of the data supported this statement, and null hypothesis 4 was not rejected.

Results of the repeated measures ANOVA computed to test hypothesis 3 revealed no significant difference in well-being between clergy relocators and nonrelocators. The multiple regression analysis computed to test this hypothesis further indicated that locator status was not a significant predictor of clergy well-being. These results suggest that factors

other than recent relocation are more adequate predictors of United Methodist clergy well-being.

While relocator status did not prove to be predictive of well-being, it is interesting to note that clergy relocators obtained the highest mean scores on the well-being measure of the four respondent types. Given the considerable research results which indicated negative psychological consequences of relocation (Ammons, Nelson, & Wodarski, 1982; Anderson & Stark, 1985; Barrett & Noble, 1973; Brett, 1982; Gaylord & Symons, 1986; Gherman, 1981; Marshall & Cooper, 1979; Pederson & Sullivan, 1964; Watson, 1990), one would have expected clergy relocators to have obtained lower scores on the well-being measure. This phenomenon may be explained in part by the fact that nearly 73% of the recent relocators in this study reported they initiated their most recent moves. It is possible that self-initiated relocation affords clergy a greater sense of mastery and control which could positively influence their adaptation to relocation. Moreover, despite the trauma sometimes associated with moving, United Methodist clergy relocation often results in promotions, higher salaries, and deliverance from difficult work situations. These factors, then, may partially account for clergy relocators' above-average well-being scores.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth null hypothesis stated that no significant relationship would be found between clergy spouse relocator status and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources were controlled. However, the multiple regression analysis revealed a statistically nonsignificant ($p = .0401$) relationship between relocator status and clergy spouse well-being at the .025 alpha level. Therefore, null hypothesis 5 was not rejected.

Like results of the clergy regression equation, results of this analysis suggested that relocator status was not predictive of well-being in clergy spouses. Nevertheless, the difference in mean scores on the General Well-Being Scale showed that nonrelocator spouses exhibited lower overall well-being than did their relocator counterparts. This finding is curious in that other research on spouse well-being (Gaylord, 1979; Neims, 1986; Seidenberg,

1973) indicated one should expect lower well-being among recently relocated spouses, not among those who had been stable for 4 years or longer.

It is plausible that the excitement and opportunity sometimes associated with relocation could increase the perception of well-being among relocators. If they had been dissatisfied with their circumstances for several years, the potential for change in personal and professional fulfillment may have reduced psychological distress. Indeed, one spouse wrote,

> A move is a good time to alter the way I plug into a local church; to assess my gifts and my willingness to be involved. Then, [I] do those things I want to do and feel called to do. This is what I do everywhere I go.

If such were the case, then the nonrelocator spouse who felt confined to a situation which was unsatisfying could become increasingly distressed if she remained in that predicament for several years. One nonrelocator spouse hinted at this possibility. She complained, "We are in our ninth year. I have been wanting to move for 3 years." These results suggest it may be important to consider the negative impact of not being permitted to relocate as well as that attributed to being required to relocate.

The double ABCX model of coping and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b), on which this study was based, posited that one's perceptions of crisis events, the pile-up of demands or stressors, and one's coping resources are predictive of one's level of well-being or adaptation. Two multiple regression analyses (Tables 11 and 12) were conducted to test the predictive ability of the components of this model for both clergy and clergy spouses. Hypotheses 6 through 11 addressed the stressor, perceptions, and coping variables in clergy and clergy spouses, respectively.

Hypothesis 6

The sixth null hypothesis stated that no significant relationship would be found between clergy stressors and clergy well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources were controlled. However, results of the multiple regression equation indicated a statistically significant ($p = .0053$) relationship between stressors and clergy well-being. Therefore, null hypothesis 6 was rejected.

Results of this data analysis support the well-documented relationship between stress and well-being (Holahan & Moos, 1987; Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Myers, Lindenthal, &

Pepper, 1974; Ostrander, 1972; Selye, 1956). In addition, these results suggest it is possible to predict clergy well-being based on clergy stress level. This finding, therefore, also lends credence to the "pile-up of demands" variable of the double ABCX model of coping and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b).

It is interesting to note that in this study clergy relocators were the only group who received a positive score on the Life Experiences Survey. This means that although they underwent relocation and other life events, overall they perceived that the positive outweighed the negative. This group of clergy relocators also received the highest scores on the General Well-Being Scale. One possible explanation is that, more often than not, clergy who relocate receive promotions to larger churches and receive higher salaries. The positive impact attributed to these events may have overshadowed any negative impact associated with relocation.

Hypothesis 7

The seventh hypothesis stated that no relationship would be found between clergy spouse stressors and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources were controlled. However, the results of the multiple regression analysis revealed a statistically significant ($p = .0007$) relationship between stressors and clergy spouse well-being. Therefore, null hypothesis 7 was rejected.

The results of this analysis were similar to those found in the clergy analysis. In fact, the stressor variable was the only component of the double ABCX model of coping and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) which was predictive of well-being in both clergy and clergy spouses. This was true despite the fact that the dependent samples t-test results revealed differences in stress scores between clergy and spouses which approached statistical significance (see Table 13). The finding that clergy stress levels were predictive of clergy well-being is consistent with other research findings which link stress levels to levels of well-being in other populations (Holahan & Moos, 1987; Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Myers, Lindenthal, & Pepper, 1974; Ostrander, 1972; Selye, 1956).

It is curious that of the four types of respondents participating in this study, clergy spouse relocators received the most negative stress scores on the Life Experiences Survey; yet,

clergy spouse nonrelocators received the lowest well-being scores. This finding implies that factors other than perceived impact of stress contribute to the level of clergy spouse well-being. It may be that degree of social support available accounts for some of the variance in stress and well-being scores among clergy spouses. Results of extensive research on social support revealed this construct often functioned as a buffer against stressful life situations (Cook & Weigel, 1983; King, Dimond, & McCance, 1987; Lavee, McCubbin, & Patterson, 1985; Neims, 1986; Ramey & McCloud, 1987; Starker, 1988). Perhaps the clergy spouse relocators' high stress scores reflect a lack of social support which, in turn, led them to evaluate life events more negatively in terms of their impact. This possibility is supported by the fact that 19.6% of the clergy spouse relocators in this study cited loneliness and grief as negative consequences of their relocation.

Hypothesis 8

The eighth null hypothesis stated that no significant relationship would be found between clergy perceptions of relocation and clergy well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources were controlled. However, the multiple regression analysis resulted in a statistically significant ($p = .0026$) relationship between perceptions of relocation and clergy well-being. Thus, null hypothesis 8 was rejected.

Results of this analysis support the double ABCX model of coping and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) which purported that one's perceptions of crisis events are predictive of one's adaptation to them. Clergy respondents received high scores on both the perceptions measure and the well-being measure. These data support the theory that more positive perceptions of relocation are predictive of higher clergy well-being.

Hypothesis 9

The ninth null hypothesis stated that no relationship would be found between clergy spouse perceptions of relocation and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources were controlled. The data analysis supported this statement and null hypothesis 9 was not rejected.

The double ABCX model of coping and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b) implies that perceptions of crisis events are predictive of well-being or adaptation. However, the results of the multiple regression equation did not support this notion for clergy spouses. On the other hand, clergy perceptions of relocation were predictive of clergy well-being. These results may be explained by the fact that clergy and clergy spouse perception scores were significantly different (see Table 14). Clergy spouses had lower scores indicating more negative perceptions of relocation than did the clergy.

The lack of statistical significance for the perception variable among clergy spouses may suggest that the Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index was not as sensitive to spouses' concerns as it was to those of the clergy. Clergy spouses' meanings and perceptions of relocation found in this study may well be based on factors which were not measured by the questionnaire. In response to the open-ended questions, clergy spouses frequently mentioned issues such as children's adjustment, employment needs, and hassles when evaluating their relocation experiences. None of these items was included in the perceptions measure. Had the Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index more adequately addressed their concerns, the perceptions variable might have proven to be predictive of clergy spouse well-being.

Hypothesis 10

The 10th null hypothesis stated that no relationship would be found between clergy coping resources and clergy well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources were controlled. Results of the multiple regression analysis revealed a statistically significant ($p = .0239$) relationship between coping resources and clergy well-being. Thus, null hypothesis 10 was rejected.

Results of this analysis support the theory that family coping resources are predictive of well-being (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b). Clergy total mean scores on the Family Crisis Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (F-COPES) were above average, indicating that clergy in this study utilize a variety of coping resources in addressing difficulties. This finding lends support to other research results which suggested that those who used more varied coping repertoires were more insulated against distress than those who used a small number of coping strategies (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). The fact that clergy respondents in this study

reported above-average well-being may be attributed to the variety of coping skills they employ in response to problems. Pearlin and Schooler (1978) further concluded that the most effective coping responses were most likely to be employed by men, by the educated, and by affluent members of society. Subjects in this clergy sample shared these characteristics. Therefore, it is not surprising that their scores reflected effective coping strategies which were predictive of well-being.

It is interesting to note that the subscale means for Acquiring Social Support, Reframing, Seeking Spiritual Support, and Mobilizing of Family to Acquire and Accept Help were consistent with the those subscale means in the normative sample. However, on the Passive Appraisal subscale, clergy respondent means were considerably higher, suggesting clergy are less likely to employ passive problem-solving strategies than the general population. Such a dramatic difference in the Passive Appraisal scores may be explained by the fact that most clergy undergo some form of coping skills training either in seminary or through continuing education events. Also, most clergy espouse a theological belief system whereby God empowers persons to confront their problems. This conviction may explain in part why clergy respondents in this study so frequently rejected the passive items included on the coping resources measure.

On the other hand, a particularly intriguing result of the data analysis revealed that the clergy in this study were as a group no different from the general population in seeking spiritual support as a coping mechanism. It would be expected that clergy would employ this strategy with greater frequency and intensity than would other populations. The four items which formed the Seeking Spiritual Support subscale may account for these unexpected results. Perhaps clergy do not view these activities (attending church services, participating in church activities, seeking advice from a minister, and having faith in God) as coping strategies as laity may. Rather, they may experience them as work-related responsibilities. In fact, at least one clergy respondent wrote, "Is this a joke?" next to item 27 (seeking advice from a minister).

Hypothesis 11

The 11th null hypothesis stated that no relationship would be found between clergy spouse coping resources and clergy spouse well-being when the effects of perceptions of relocation, stressors, and coping resources were controlled. The data analysis supported this statement; therefore, null hypothesis 11 was not rejected.

Research results found by McCubbin and Patterson (1983b) indicated that coping resources interacting with stressors and perceptions of the crisis event, were predictive of well-being. This finding did not hold true for clergy spouses in spite of the fact that spouses' total mean scores on the Family Crisis Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (F-COPES) were consistent with the total mean scores for females in the normative sample. The lack of a significant finding for the coping resources variable among clergy spouses may be explained partially by the notion that these subjects may have employed coping strategies not measured by the instrument. For example, many clergy spouses indicated they were able to manage relocation stress because they believed it was God's will for them to be appointed to each new location. The coping resources measure used in this study was not sensitive to the nuances of religious attitudes and belief systems which may function as coping strategies. Nevertheless, it has been shown that religious attitudes were positively related to overall well-being (Ellison, Gay, & Glass, 1989; Willets & Crider, 1990). This fact may explain why clergy spouses scored above average on the well-being measure, while obtaining only average scores on the coping resources measure.

Results of conducting the dependent sample t-test revealed statistically significant ($p = .0017$) differences between clergy and clergy spouses on the coping resources variable. This finding supports previous research results (Adaskin, 1987; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978) which indicated gender differences in coping styles. Males were found to use more active, external methods of coping while females reported preference for more passive, solitary, internal methods of coping (Adaskin, 1987). In this study similar results were found among clergy spouses. Clergy spouse mean scores on the Passive Appraisal subscale were lower than those of their clergy mates, suggesting they employ more passive coping strategies than their

husbands do. These results also lend support to results obtained by Hsieh and Rugg (1983) in their study of ministers' wives' coping styles.

Open-Ended Question 1

The first open-ended question stated, "What else is important for me to know about your relocation experiences?"

Responses to each question were organized into topics. The following issues emerged as major concerns shared by the four types of respondents: (a) children's adjustment to relocation, (b) spouse's employment needs, (c) parsonage furnishings and cleanliness, (d) financial impact of relocation, (e) political aspects of the itinerant system, and (f) hassles involved in getting established in a new home, church, and community.

The majority of the narrative responses contributed by the four types of respondents were negative in tone. This phenomenon is not consistent with above-average scores obtained by all respondent types on both the perceptions of relocation measure and the well-being measure. It is intriguing that some subjects began their comments with negative statements but concluded them with positive reframes. For example, one nonrelocator spouse wrote,

> Many moves are the partial result of the PPR [personnel] Committee deciding it's time for a change. This is the pastoral equivalent of being fired. It's very hard on the family self-esteem. It's stressful to keep on being friendly with people who treat your spouse with disrespect. There are sometimes children with special needs who have difficulty with school and making friends because of the nature of Dad's work. The family tries hard to present a united front, with perfect children. This all sounds so negative, but it hasn't been overwhelming. I can picture no other life, for it has been very satisfactory and fulfilling.

With the exception of two items on the Clergy Perceptions of Relocation Index (parsonage and finances), neither the perceptions nor the well-being instrument attempted to measure issues which respondents indicated were negative aspects of relocation. It may be that scores on these variables would have been lower had they been included. On the other hand, it is possible that negative aspects of relocation are not significantly related to well-being.

Open-Ended Question 2

In answer to the question regarding what counselors should know in working with relocating clergy families, three major themes emerged. These issues focused on (a) grief and loneliness experienced by relocating families, (b) lack of trust and support among clergy

colleagues, and (c) coping with relocation through maintaining a positive attitude, a religious belief system, and through acceptance of the itineracy and its demands.

These themes cited by respondents as appropriate counseling issues were not specifically measured in this study. However, they reveal dimensions of United Methodist clergy family relocation experiences which may be contributing factors to both coping strategies and well-being. These topics also suggest a focus for counselors working with United Methodist clergy families.

Some respondents used the question regarding counseling to express both their negative perceptions of the counseling profession and dissatisfaction with their counseling experiences. Their complaints included concerns regarding (a) lack of spiritual commitment exhibited by counselors, (b) high cost, (c) uneven quality, (d) lack of confidentiality, and (d) ineffectiveness.

While these issues are beyond the purpose of this study, respondents' comments suggest that United Methodist clergy and clergy spouses hold a somewhat negative image of the counseling profession. These responses indicate a need for counselors to build positive relationships with clergy in their communities in order to improve clergy perceptions of the profession. In addition, these comments suggest that despite their acknowledged need for counseling during transitional periods, clergy families may not avail themselves of these services.

Implications and Recommendations for Further Research

Completion of this study has resulted in an increased understanding of well-being in relocating and nonrelocating United Methodist clergy and clergy spouses. Based on these findings, there are several implications for research and counseling and for relocation decisions in the United Methodist Church.

The results of this study call into question the conclusions drawn by many researchers that frequent serial relocation results in psychological distress and impaired well-being (Anderson & Stark, 1985; Gherman, 1981; Marshall & Cooper, 1979). Although subjects in this study made numerous negative remarks regarding their relocation experiences, overall, their well-being scores were above average when compared to the normative sample. These

discrepancies between self-reported well-being and negative relocation experiences suggest avenues for additional research on the well-being construct with clergy and clergy spouses. Further exploration of well-being should include multiple measures such as self-report instruments, observational data, and structured interviews. Comparisons of well-being in United Methodist clergy subjects and similar type subjects from other Protestant denominations would also be appropriate.

Alternatively, results of this study indicated that clergy spouse well-being was significantly lower than that of the clergy. This finding supported similar research results addressing spouse well-being in relocating populations (Butler, McAllister, & Kaiser, 1973; Gaylord, 1979; Glueck, 1974; Levin, Groves, & Lurie, 1980; Neims, 1986, Watson, 1990). Results of this study suggest counselors may need to become pro-active in offering services to relocating clergy families, giving special attention to clergy spouses. More research should be conducted to investigate additional factors which influence well-being in United Methodist clergy and clergy spouses. Such research should explore variables which may account for lower well-being in female clergy spouses.

The results of this study indicated that stressors, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources are predictive of well-being in United Methodist clergy. These results support the double ABCX model of coping and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b). Because clergy well-being was found to be significantly related to stress level and coping style, counselors should develop stress management and coping skills training programs which presumably would result in increased well-being among clergy, especially following relocation. It follows, then, that if Bishops and District Superintendents in the United Methodist Church knew the stress levels, relocation perceptions, and the coping styles of clergy, they could make relocation decisions which would enable optimal clergy well-being. In order to expand the profile of factors which predict clergy well-being, further research efforts should investigate the relationship between demographic variables and clergy and clergy spouse well-being.

The results of this study also suggest that clergy spouses' well-being can be predicted by stress level but not by locator status, perceptions of relocation, and/or coping resources.

This implies that other factors may well be better predictors of well-being in clergy spouses than relocator status, relocation perceptions, and coping style. Results of this study revealed clergy spouses to be particularly concerned about their children's relocation adjustment, their own employment opportunities, and their need for emotional support. Additional research should be conducted to address the relationship between these variables and well-being in clergy spouses. The results of this study imply that clergy spouses could benefit from counseling services which provide emotional support, stress management, coping skills training, and support groups for relocating children.

Although subjects in this sample obtained average to above-average scores on the coping resource measure, their comments revealed a tendency to use their religious beliefs as a coping mechanisms. This implies that counselors working with clergy families should be aware of the way in which a religious world view may be used to reframe stressful life events. Despite the fact that religiosity has been shown to be related to high levels of well-being (Ellison, Gay, & Glass, 1989; Willets & Crider, 1990), further investigation is needed focusing on the relationship between religious belief systems and well-being among clergy families.

Because the results of this study were drawn from a sample of white male clergy and their spouses, these findings may not generalize to ethnic minority clergy and their spouses, to clergywomen and their spouses, or to single clergy of either gender. Due to this limitation, counselors and church officials should use caution when interpreting and applying the results of the study. Additional research is warranted regarding the relationship between relocation and well-being in these special populations.

Conclusions

Prior to this study, the effects of relocation on clergy and clergy spouse well-being were largely unknown. Previous research results regarding the impact of relocation were mixed. Relocation was shown to have detrimental impact on psychological well-being and life satisfaction in primarily business executive populations (Ammons, Nelson, & Wodarski, 1982; Barrett & Noble, 1973; Brett, 1982; Gaylord & Symons, 1986; Gherman, 1981; Marshall & Cooper, 1979). However, there was also evidence that some populations, especially military, relocated with relative ease, enjoying improved life and work satisfaction

(Brett, 1982; Marchant & Medway, 1987; McKain, 1973; Pihl & Caron, 1980). The results of this study reveal that there is no difference in well-being between relocators and nonrelocators in a sample of United Methodist clergy and their spouses. In fact, the results suggest that recently relocated clergy and clergy spouses have higher well-being than those who have remained stable for 4 years or more.

The results of this study indicate that while clergy spouses enjoy above average well-being, it is significantly lower than that of their clergy mates. This finding is consistent with other studies which focused on relocating wives' well-being (Ammons, Nelson, & Wodarksi, 1982; Neims, 1986; Seidenberg, 1973; Tiger, 1974).

According to the results of this study, clergy stressors, perceptions of relocation, and coping resources are predictive of clergy well-being. These conclusions are consistent with the double ABCX model of coping and adaptation (McCubbin & Patterson, 1983b). However, for clergy spouses, of the variables cited in the double ABCX model, only the "pile-up of demands" or stressor component is predictive of well-being. When the relocator/nonrelocator variable was added to the model, it was not predictive of well-being for clergy or clergy spouses.

APPENDIX A
LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL AND INFORMED CONSENT

Dear United Methodist Colleagues in Ministry:

I am an elder in the Florida Annual Conference of the United Methodist Church currently on student appointment. I am also a doctoral candidate in the Department of Counselor Education at the University of Florida conducting research for my Ph.D. dissertation concerning United Methodist clergy and their spouses' experiences of relocation. This research includes how Florida United Methodist clergy and their spouses perceive relocation, the impact of stressors, their ways of coping with stress, and how clergy and their spouses feel about their lives. I hope the results of this study will help clergy and their families in making successful relocations.

I am requesting your participation in this research. Even if you have not moved for several years, I am interested in your responses. Please complete the enclosed questionnaire today or tomorrow (if at all possible) and return it to me in the stamped envelope provided. Because your responses will be kept anonymous and confidential, please return the enclosed postcard to notify me you have returned your questionnaire. Please do not put your name or other identifying information on the questionnaire. The codes in the upper right-hand corner of the questionnaire do not identify respondents in any way. They are for the sole purpose of pairing clergy and spouses' questionnaires when I receive them. Be assured that you are not obligated to participate in this research and may withdraw your consent at any time without prejudice.

If you have questions about the study, please contact me at my address or telephone number listed below. I will be happy to share with you the results of the study. If you agree to participate in the study, please indicate your willingness on the enclosed postcard.

I deeply appreciate your cooperation and prayerful completion of the questionnaire. I trust the results will provide useful information for clergy families in Florida.

Sincerely,

Marsha Wiggins Frame, Ed.S.
9321 N.W. 15th Pl, Gainesville, FL 32606
904-332-0993

APPENDIX B
INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. The enclosed questionnaire consists of five sections. Specific directions for completing each part are provided on the questionnaire itself. Please complete the entire questionnaire. Partially completed questionnaires cannot be used. Completion of the questionnaire should take approximately 20 minutes.

2. The blue questionnaire is to be completed by the clergyperson. The gray one is to be completed by the spouse.

3. Please do not collaborate with your spouse while completing the items on the questionnaire.

4. When you have completed the questionnaire, each partner is to return it to me immediately in the separate stamped envelopes provided.

5. Also, please complete the enclosed postcard indicating you have agreed to participate and have mailed your completed questionnaire under separate cover. The postcard will let me know I do not need to continue to send you follow-up materials.

6. If you have any questions, please call me (collect, if desired) at (904) 332-0993. If I am unavailable to take your call, please leave your name and telephone number on our answering machine. I will return your call promptly.

Thank you in advance for your help!

MARSHA WIGGINS FRAME

***PLEASE RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRE AS SOON AS COMPLETED IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED. AND DON'T FORGET TO MAIL THE POSTCARD! THANKS!

APPENDIX C
POSTCARD ENCLOSURE/
CLERGY ADAPTATION TO RELOCATION STUDY

I have received and read the procedure described in the research materials. I agree to participate in the project and have returned my questionnaire separately.

_____

Your name date
(Please print)

Thanks again for your help with this important study.

APPENDIX D

THE CLERGY AND CLERGY SPOUSE RELOCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Form _____

Section I: The questions in this section address your most recent relocation. Even if you have not moved for several years, please complete this section. Circle the answer that best fits your response to the questions below. Please mark only one answer per item. Thank you.

1. Overall, my attitude toward my most recent relocation has been:
   1=EXTREMELY POSITIVE
   2=MOSTLY POSITIVE
   3=NEUTRAL
   4=MOSTLY NEGATIVE
   5=EXTREMELY NEGATIVE

2. The support I received from my immediate family (household members) regarding the move was:
   1=EXCELLENT
   2=VERY GOOD
   3=FAIR
   4=POOR
   5=VERY POOR

3. The support I received from others (non-family members) regarding the move was:
   1=EXCELLENT
   2=VERY GOOD
   3=FAIR
   4=POOR
   5=VERY POOR

4. Compared to our previous appointment, our new church environment is:
   1= GREATLY IMPROVED
   2= IMPROVED
   3= THE SAME
   4= SLIGHTLY WORSE
   5= MUCH WORSE

5. Compared to our previous appointment, our new parsonage is:
   1=GREATLY IMPROVED

2=IMPROVED
3=THE SAME
4=SLIGHTLY WORSE
5=MUCH WORSE

6. Compared to our previous appointment, our new community is:
1=GREATLY IMPROVED
2=IMPROVED
3=THE SAME
4=SLIGHTLY WORSE
5=MUCH WORSE

7. My commitment to the "United Methodist Way of Life" of the itineracy is:
1=VERY HIGH
2=HIGH
3=AVERAGE
4=LOW
5=VERY LOW

8. Our family's financial situation after the move was:
1=GREATLY IMPROVED
2=IMPROVED
3=THE SAME
4=SLIGHTLY WORSE
5=MUCH WORSE

9. In my new situation, compared to my previous one, my work satisfaction is:
1=GREATLY IMPROVED
2=IMPROVED
3=THE SAME
4=SLIGHTLY WORSE
5=MUCH WORSE

10. The timeliness of this move for me was:
1=JUST ABOUT PERFECT
2=VERY GOOD
3=OK
4=NOT SO GOOD
5=VERY POOR

* Support is defined as expressions of affect, affirmation, and aid.

** Timeliness is defined as one's readiness for an event to occur; the perception that an event has occurred "on time" or "at a good time" in the life cycle.

***Church environment refers to the aesthetics of the physical surroundings of the church plant.

Section II: Listed below are a number of events which sometimes bring about change in the lives of those who experience them and which necessitate social readjustment. Please check those events which you have experienced in the recent past and indicate the time period during which you have experienced each event. Be sure that all check marks are in the proper box. Also, for each item checked below, please indicate the extent to which you viewed the event as having either a positive or negative impact on your life at the time the event occurred. That is, indicate the type and extent of impact that the event had. A rating of -3 would indicate an EXTREMELY NEGATIVE impact. A rating of 0 suggests NO IMPACT either positive or negative. A rating of +3 would indicate an EXTREMELY POSITIVE impact.

	0 to 6 mo	7 mo to 1 yr	Exceedingly negative	Moderately negative	Somewhat negative	No impact	Slightly positive	Moderately positive	Extremely positive
1. Marriage			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
2. Detention in jail or comparable institution			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
3. Death of spouse			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
4. Major change in sleeping habits (much more or much less sleep)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
5. Death of a close family member			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
a. mother			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
b. father			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
c. brother			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
d. sister			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
e. grandmother			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
f. grandfather			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
g. other (specify)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

6. Major change in eating habits (much more or much less food intake)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
7. Foreclosure on mortgage or loan			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
8. Death of close friend			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
9. Outstanding personal achievement			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
10. Minor law violations (traffic tickets, disturbing the peace, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
11. Male: Wife/girlfriend's pregnancy			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
12. Female: Pregnancy			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
13. Changed work situation (different work responsibility, major change in working conditions, working hours, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
14. New job			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
15. Serious illness or injury of close family member:			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
a. mother			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
b. father			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
c. sister			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
d. brother			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
e. grandfather			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
f. grandmother			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
g. spouse			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
h. other (specify)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
16. Sexual difficulties			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
17. Trouble with employer (danger of losing job, being suspended, demoted, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
18. Trouble with in-laws			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
19. Major change in financial status (a lot better off or a lot worse off)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
20. Major change in closeness of family members (increased or decreased closeness)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
21. Gaining a new family member (through birth, adoption, family member moving in, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
22. Change of residence			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
23. Marital separation from mate (due to conflict			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

24. Major change in church activities (increased or decreased attendance)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
25. Marital reconciliation with mate			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
26. Major change in number of arguments with spouse (a lot more or a lot fewer arguments)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
27. Married male: Change in wife's work outside the home (beginning work, ceasing work, changing to a new job, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
28. Married female: Change in husband's work (loss of job, beginning new job, retirement, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
29. Major change in usual type and/or amount of recreation			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
30. Borrowing more than $10,000 (buying home, business, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
31. Borrowing less than $10,000 (buying car, TV, getting school loan, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
32. Being fired from job			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
33. Male: Wife/girlfriend having abortion			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
34. Female: having abortion			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
35. Major personal illness or injury			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
36. Major change in social activities e.g. parties, movies, visiting (including increased or decreased participation)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
37. Major change in living conditions of family (building new home, remodeling, deterioration of home, neighborhood, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
38. Divorce			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
39. Serious injury or illness of close friend			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
40. Retirement from work			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
41. Son or daughter leaving home (due to marriage, college, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
42. Ending of formal schooling			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
43. Separation from spouse (due to work, travel, etc.)			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
44. Engagement			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
45. Breaking up with boyfriend/girlfriend			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

46. Leaving home for the first time			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
47. Reconciliation with boyfriend/girlfriend			-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
48. Other (specify)									
49. Other (specify)									

Section III: These questions address problem-solving attitudes and behavior which families develop to respond to problems or difficulties. First, read the list of "Response Choices" one at a time. Second, decide how well each statement describes your attitudes and behavior in response to problems or difficulties. If the statement describes your response very well, then circle the number 5 indicating that you STRONGLY AGREE; if the statement does not describe your response at all, then circle the number 1 indicating that you STRONGLY DISAGREE; if the statement describes your response to some degree, then select a number 2, 3, or 4 to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statement about your response.

When we face problems or difficulties in our family, we respond by:	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Sharing our difficulties with relatives	1	2	3	4	5
2. Seeking encouragement and support from friends	1	2	3	4	5
3. Knowing we have the power to solve major problems	1	2	3	4	5
4. Seeking information and advice from persons in other families who have faced the same or similar problems	1	2	3	4	5
5. Seeking advice from relatives (grandparents, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
6. Seeking assistance from community agencies and programs designed to help families in our situation	1	2	3	4	5
7. Knowing that we have the strength within our own family to solve our problems	1	2	3	4	5
8. Receiving gifts and favors from neighbors (e.g. food, taking in mail, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
9. Seeking information and advice from the family doctor	1	2	3	4	5
10. Asking neighbors for favors and assistance	1	2	3	4	5
11. Facing the problems "head-on" and trying to get solution right away	1	2	3	4	5

12. Watching television	1	2	3	4	5
13. Showing that we are strong	1	2	3	4	5
14. Attending church services	1	2	3	4	5
15. Accepting stressful events as a fact of life	1	2	3	4	5
16. Sharing concerns with close friends	1	2	3	4	5
17. Knowing luck plays a big part in how well we are able to solve family problems	1	2	3	4	5
18. Exercising with friends to stay fit and reduce tension	1	2	3	4	5
19. Accepting that difficulties occur unexpectedly	1	2	3	4	5
20. Doing things with relatives (get-togethers, dinners, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
21. Seeking professional counseling and help for family difficulties	1	2	3	4	5
22. Believing we can handle our own problems	1	2	3	4	5
23. Participating in church activities	1	2	3	4	5
24. Defining the family problem in a more positive way so that we do not become too discouraged	1	2	3	4	5
25. Asking relatives how they feel about problems we face	1	2	3	4	5
26. Feeling that no matter what we do to prepare, we will have difficulty handling problems	1	2	3	4	5
27. Seeking advice from a minister	1	2	3	4	5
28. Believing if we wait long enough, the problem will go away	1	2	3	4	5
29. Sharing problems with neighbors	1	2	3	4	5
30. Having faith in God	1	2	3	4	5

Section IV: The following questions deal with how you feel about your life in general. Circle the number of the response which <u>best</u> represents your experience.

1. During the past month, have you been bothered by any illness, bodily disorder, or pains?

1= ALL OF THE TIME
2= A GOOD BIT OF THE TIME
3= SOME OF THE TIME
4= A LITTLE OF THE TIME
5= NONE OF THE TIME

2. During the past month, how concerned or worried about your health have you been?

1= VERY CONCERNED
2= CONCERNED A GOOD BIT
3= SOMEWHAT CONCERNED
4= A LITTLE CONCERNED

5=NOT CONCERNED AT ALL

3. During the past month, have you felt tired, worn out, used up, or exhausted?
1= ALL OF THE TIME
2= A GOOD BIT OF THE TIME
3= SOME OF THE TIME
4= A LITTLE OF THE TIME
5= NONE OF THE TIME

4. During the past month, how much energy, pep, or vitality have you felt?
1= NO ENERGY AT ALL
2= A LITTLE BIT OF ENERGY
3= SOME ENERGY
4= A GOOD BIT OF ENERGY
5= VERY ENERGETIC

5. During the past month, how happy, satisfied, or pleased have you been with your personal life?
1= VERY DISSATISFIED
2= SOMEWHAT DISSATISFIED
3= SATISFIED-PLEASED
4= FAIRLY HAPPY
5= VERY HAPPY

6. During the past month, how have you been feeling in general?
1= IN VERY LOW SPIRITS
2= IN LOW SPIRITS MOSTLY
3= I HAVE BEEN UP AND DOWN IN SPIRITS A LOT
4= IN GOOD SPIRITS MOSTLY
5= IN VERY GOOD SPIRITS

7. During the past month, how depressed or cheerful have you been?
1= VERY DEPRESSED
2= SOMEWHAT DEPRESSED
3= ABOUT HALF DEPRESSED AND HALF CHEERFUL
4= FAIRLY CHEERFUL
5= VERY CHEERFUL

8. During the past month, have you been under or felt you were under any strain, stress, or pressure?
1= YES- ALMOST MORE THAN I COULD STAND
2= YES- QUITE A BIT

3= YES- SOME, BUT ABOUT USUAL
4= YES- A LITTLE
5= NOT AT ALL

9. During the past month, have you been bothered by nervousness or your "nerves"?
1= EXTREMELY SO– TO THE POINT WHERE I COULD NOT WORK OR TAKE CARE OF THINGS
2= QUITE A BIT
3= SOME-- ENOUGH TO BOTHER ME
4= A LITTLE
5= NOT AT ALL

10. During the past month, how relaxed or tense have you been?
1= VERY TENSE
2= SOMEWHAT TENSE
3= ABOUT HALF AND HALF
4= SOMEWHAT RELAXED
5= VERY RELAXED

Section V: (Clergy) And now a few more questions about yourself and you're finished! Check the appropriate blank or fill in the accurate response listed below. Please be careful not to skip any questions.

1. Your Age:
_____ YEARS

2. Your Gender:
a. Male
b. Female

3. How long have you been married?
_____YEARS

4. Were you already ordained or committed to ministry when you married?
1. YES
2. NO

5. Were children (under 18) living in your home at the time of your move?
1. YES
2. NO

6. What was your approximate salary & travel as of January, 1992? (Do not include spouse's income or income from other sources.)

_____DOLLARS

7. How many times have you moved since seminary (including the move from seminary to your first appointment)?

____NUMBER OF MOVES

8. How many total years of service (see 1992 Journal)

_____ YEARS OF SERVICE

9. If you moved in June, 1992, who initiated the move? (If you did not move in 1992, omit this question.)

1. ME
2. CHURCH
3. CABINET

10. What else is important for me to know about your relocation experiences? (Write your answer in the space below.)

11. What should counselors who work with relocating clergy families know about your relocation experience? (Write your answer in the space below.)

Section V: (Spouses) And now a few more questions about yourself and you're finished! Check the appropriate blank or fill in the accurate response listed below. Please be careful not to skip any questions.

1. Your Age:
   _____ YEARS

2. Your Gender:
   a. Male
   b. Female

3. How long have you been married?
   _____YEARS

4. Was your spouse already ordained or committed to ministry when you married?
   1. YES
   2. NO

5. Were children (under 18) living in your home at the time of your move?
   1. YES
   2. NO

6. Are you currently employed outside the home?
   1. YES
   2. NO

IF YOUR ANSWER TO QUESTION 6 WAS "NO" OMIT QUESTIONS 7-9.

7. How much time do you spend in employment outside of the home?
   _____HOURS

8. Please describe your occupation.

TITLE: _____

KIND OF WORK YOU DO _____

KIND OF COMPANY OR BUSINESS _____

9. What was your approximate salary in January, 1992? (Do not include spouse's income or income other than that earned from your own employment.)
   _____DOLLARS

10. What else is important for me to know about your relocation experiences? (Use back of paper for your answer.)

11. What should counselors who work with relocating clergy know about your relocation experiences? (Use back of paper for your answer.)

APPENDIX E
FOLLOW-UP LETTER #1

Dear Colleagues in Ministry:

Last week I mailed you a questionnaire regarding United Methodist clergy and their spouses' experiences of relocation.

If you have already completed and returned it to me, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. Because the questionnaire has been sent to a small percentage of all Florida United Methodist clergy and their spouses, it is extremely important that yours be included if the results are to accurately represent United Methodist clergy and their spouses' opinions.

If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it has been misplaced, please call me right now collect (904-332-0993), and I will get another one in the mail to you today.

Sincerely,

Marsha Wiggins Frame, Ed.S.

APPENDIX F
FOLLOW-UP LETTER #2

Dear United Methodist Colleagues in Ministry:

About three weeks ago I wrote to you seeking information regarding your experiences of relocation. As of today I have not yet received your completed questionnaire.

I have undertaken this study because I believe information regarding your experiences is vital if Florida United Methodist clergy families and the ministry of their churches is going to thrive in the 21st century.

I am writing to you again because of the importance each questionnaire has to this study. In the event yours was misplaced, a replacement is enclosed.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Marsha Wiggins Frame, Ed.S.

APPENDIX G
RESULTS OF OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

Table G-1

Frequency Distribution for Relocation Topics by Respondent Type. N= 277.

Topic	Total Respondents	n	Cell%
Children's Adjustment			
Clergy (R)	63	9	14.2
Spouse (R)	61	15	24.6
Clergy (NR)	78	10	12.8
Spouse (NR)	75	16	21.3
Spouse's Employment Needs			
Clergy (R)	63	4	6.3
Spouse (R)	61	16	26.2
Clergy (NR)	78	10	12.8
Spouse (NR)	75	14	18.6
Parsonage Furnishings/ Cleanliness			
Clergy (R)	63	9	14.2
Spouse (R)	61	19	31.1
Clergy (NR)	78	5	6.4
Spouse (NR)	75	12	16.0

Table G-1--continued.

Topic	Total Respondents	n	Cell%
Financial Impact			
Clergy (R)	63	4	6.3
Spouse (R)	61	3	4.9
Clergy (NR)	78	5	6.4
Spouse (N)	75	2	2.6
Political Aspects of Itineracy			
Clergy (R)	63	3	4.7
Spouse (R)	61	1	1.6
Clergy (NR)	78	4	5.1
Spouse (NR)	75	4	5.3
Hassles			
Clergy (R)	63	1	1.5
Spouse (R)	61	4	6.5
Clergy (NR)	78	0	---
Spouse (NR)	75	2	2.6

Table G-2

Frequency Distribution for Counseling Issues by Respondent Type. N=277

Counseling Issue	Total Respondents	n	Cell%
Grief/ Loneliness			
Clergy (R)	63	6	9.5
Spouse (R)	61	12	19.6
Clergy (NR)	78	3	3.8
Spouse (NR)	75	13	17.3
Lack of Trust/ Support From Colleagues			
Clergy (R)	63	2	3.1
Spouse (R)	61	2	3.2
Clergy (R)	78	2	2.5
Spouse (NR)	75	1	1.3
Coping via Positive Attitude			
Clergy (R)	63	1	1.5
Spouse (R)	61	5	8.1
Clergy (NR)	78	5	6.4
Spouse (NR)	75	4	5.3
Coping via Religious Belief System			
Clergy (R)	63	2	2.1
Spouse (R)	61	3	4.9
Clergy (NR)	78	5	6.4
Spouse (NR)	75	5	6.6

Table G-2--continued.

Counseling Issue	Total Respondents	n	Cell%
Coping via Accepting Itineracy Demands			
Clergy (R)	63	1	1.5
Spouse (R)	61	1	1.6
Clergy (NR)	78	2	2.5
Spouse (NR)	75	--	---

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Marsha Wiggins Frame was born on September 3, 1953, in Montgomery, Alabama. She is the older of two daughters born to Bill and Laura Wiggins.

Marsha grew up in Sarasota, Florida, where she graduated from Riverview High School in 1971. In 1975 she graduated from Florida Southern College with a degree in Christian education. In 1976 she was ordained a Deacon in the United Methodist Church. Following her completion of a Master of Divinity degree at The Candler School of Theology at Emory University in 1978, Marsha served as Associate Minister of St. Paul United Methodist Church in Jacksonville, Florida. In 1980 she was ordained an Elder in the United Methodist Church and was appointed as Minister of Golden Gate United Methodist Church in Naples, Florida. There she met and married Dr. Roger E. Frame. In 1983, Marsha was appointed as Associate Minister at Trinity United Methodist Church in Gainesville, Florida, and enrolled at the University of Florida in 1984 to study toward the doctoral degree in agency, correctional, and developmental counseling. Marsha served as Senior Minister of First United Methodist Church in Fort Pierce, Florida, for one year prior to returning to the University of Florida to complete the Specialist in Education degree in 1990.

During her doctoral training in counselor education, Marsha worked as a child and family therapist at Mental Health Services in Gainesville, Florida, and is currently a coordinator of clinical programs for the Child Protection Team. She is a Florida licensed Mental Health Counselor and a National Certified Counselor. Marsha and her husband Roger share a private counseling practice. They have a son, Brian Cameron Frame.

Marsha's professional interests include counseling, teaching, and providing presentations for churches, schools, and community groups. Her hobbies include tennis, hiking, and gourmet cooking.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Paul J. Witmer, Chairperson
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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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